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The Modern Language Journal

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All contributions should conform to the directions contained in the MLA Style Sheet. Unacceptable manuscripts accompanied by postage will be returned.

Status of the Academic and Professional Training of Modern Language Teachers in the High Schools of the United States

I. ORGANIZATION OF THE SURVEY

WHEN Stephen A. Freeman urged a new nation-wide look at the status of teacher education for the modern foreign languages on December 27, 1948,¹ it was not the first nor the last time that he has directed attention toward the teacher. He has described in clear terms the minimum competencies of such teachers and suggested ways to secure these competencies in our high school teachers. The 1948 plea called for a Committee on Teacher Recruitment, Training and Placement in each of the AAT's and in the National Federation. When the Federation at the 1948 meeting of its Executive Committee voted to appoint such a nation-wide Committee, the AAT's endorsed the action and agreed to cooperate with this committee rather than to establish separate groups.

The October 1949 issue of the *Modern Language Journal* (pages 478-479) carried the names of the two working divisions of the survey group—a Steering Committee of sixteen, including its chairman, Henry G. Doyle, and an Advisory Committee of twenty-five under the chairmanship of Walter V. Kaulfers, who was also a member of the Steering Committee. The General Chairman of the Survey was Charles M. Purin, president at that time of the Federation, representing the AATG.

Dr. Purin opened the campaign with the leading article in the May 1949 *Modern Language Journal*.² After citing a resolution favorable to foreign language study by Senator Elmer Thomas of Oklahoma, he uttered the persistent truth that the crux of the situation lay, and will continue to lie, in competent and satisfied teachers, happy and economically secure in their chosen profession. He announced the

formation of his Survey Committee and described its plan to circulate a questionnaire to secure current data. He referred to the recommendations of his 1929 report³ and quoted three items which he felt were still valid after twenty years. He expressed a hope that certification requirements could be raised by legislative action of the various states.

Editor Julio del Toro added a plug for the investigation in his "Editor's Corner" in the April 1950 *Modern Language Journal*. From time to time Dr. Purin made progress reports to the Executive Committee of the Federation, as recorded in the published minutes of the secretary.

In the May 1952 *Modern Language Journal* (page 249) Dr. Purin published an open letter to all state committee chairmen asking that all outstanding questionnaires be sent in so that the Survey might be closed. After thanking the workers, he requested help in finding qualified graduate students who might tabulate the data as a thesis or dissertation.

In the minutes of the 1952 meeting of the Executive Committee (published in the April

¹ Stephen A. Freeman, "What About the Teacher?" *Modern Language Journal*, Vol. XXXIII: 255-267 (April 1949).

See also: "What Constitutes the Well-Trained Language Teacher?" *Modern Language Journal*, Vol. XXV: 293-305 (Jan. 1941) and "The Training of Foreign Language Teachers for Secondary Schools," paper presented in the Teacher Training Section of a general meeting of the MLA of America at Chicago on December 29, 1953.

² "Language is Ordinance," Vol. XXXIII: 335-338.

³ Charles M. Purin, *The Training of Teachers of the Modern Foreign Languages*. 1929, Macmillan; 112 pages. This is Volume XIII of the Publications of the American and Canadian Committees on Modern Languages—the "Study."

1953 *Modern Language Journal*, page 211) Dr. Purin's final report was recorded. Dr. Purin planned to write a tentative summary for publication. He had turned over for analysis all Survey data to the Foreign Language Program of the MLA of America.

Dr. Purin's summary, which he called a "Preliminary Report" was published in the October 1953 *Modern Language Journal* (pages 303-307). There is no need of repeating his historical account here, but there is a slight correction needed in his reference to Ohio State University. When Dr. Purin learned that the F.L.P. had committed all its funds and that the Survey data might have to lie a year or more before an analysis could be financed, he approached the writer with an offer to turn over the materials if the analysis could be financed at Ohio State University. The writer proposed a research project to the Implementing Committee in the Ohio State University College of Education. With the full endorsement of this committee, a request was entered for a grant from the Graduate School to finance the project. With the money provided through the good offices of the Graduate Dean, Dr. N. Paul Hudson, two graduate assistants were hired at half-time for a period of two months. The workers were not regular staff members and neither of them expected to use the tabulations for graduate purposes. It, therefore, fell to the writer to prepare this final report.

In July and August of 1953 the two assistants, Mrs. Ruth Clausung and Mr. Paul Steele, tabulated all the data with the exception of Part IV (see below) and the rather complicated data of Item 5 in Part I (see the questionnaire form in the Appendix). On learning that serious gaps existed in the state returns, the writer felt that an effort should be made to fill these gaps. It was impossible during the summer to reach the officers of the Executive Committee of the Federation with a suggestion that additional funds be supplied. Moreover, some of the officers felt that the Survey could never be made complete and that the incomplete returns would prove adequate to indicate trends sufficiently for Survey purposes. At the 1953 Executive Council meeting a small grant was made to engage Mrs. Clausung to complete the tabulation of data for Item 5. This work was completed during the school year 1953-54.

The Ohio Report

In the spring of 1950 the writer enlisted the interest of a graduate student working under his direction for the Master of Arts degree in Foreign Language Education at Ohio State University. Mr. Richard Beery, teacher of Spanish at Rosary High School, Columbus, Ohio, sent Parts I and II of the Survey questionnaire to all the departments concerned in the forty-five colleges and universities which were members of the Ohio College Association. About the same time the chairman for Ohio, Dr. F. Dewey Amner of Kent State University, unaware that Mr. Beery had undertaken the Ohio survey, sent similar questionnaires to the same schools. In addition, Dr. Amner sent out Part IV to several hundred high school teachers.

When Dr. Amner heard of Mr. Beery's project, he graciously turned over all the returned questionnaires he had received. After duplicate returns had been reconciled, there were data from thirty-three schools; and three others of the forty-five reported that no teacher-training program in foreign languages existed in their systems. In Table I and subsequent tables the data will be given for Ohio in order to show the status of a representative state, in comparison to the regional statistics. Mr. Beery's thesis⁴ can be obtained for study on interlibrary loan.

II. THE PURIN REPORT OF 1929

Dr. Purin's 1929 report comprises eight chapters. In I, *Sources and Materials of the Study*, he described his questionnaires: (a) on teacher training addressed to college and university departments of modern languages; (b) on observation and practice teaching; (c) to selected teachers of modern languages; and (d) on training and experience of modern language teachers in secondary schools. In II, *Present Training and Experience of Modern Language Teachers*, he gave distributions of data by language specializations such as totals by sex, average years of study and of experience, and types of institutions attended and highest degrees held.

Chapter III, *Organization of Teacher Training Courses in Modern Languages*, gave returns

⁴ *The High School and College Requirements in the Training of Modern Foreign Language Teachers in Ohio*. Unpublished M.A. Thesis, Ohio State University, 1954.

from 693 departments on course requirements. Chapter IV treated *The Subject Matter of Teacher Training Courses in Modern Languages*, a very difficult topic to report. Chapter V summarized *Requirements for the College Major and Minor in a Modern Foreign Language* and Chapter VI covered *Requirements in Education for Modern Language Teachers*. Chapter VII reported the *Certification and Placement of Teachers* and Chapter VIII treated *Post-Collegiate Training of Modern Language Teachers*.

The contents of the fifteen *Recommendations* of Chapter IX are deemed of sufficient importance to be repeated here:

1. In so far as facilities permit modern foreign language departments in the colleges of liberal arts and in teachers colleges should, together with the departments of education, organize curricula and courses specifically designed for the training of teachers of modern foreign languages.
2. The aim of these courses should be to give prospective teachers adequate training in the language, the literature, the history of the foreign civilization and of the foreign language, and in educational psychology.
3. In order that their courses may be properly planned, students intending to teach a modern foreign language should be advised to announce this fact at the beginning of the Sophomore year.
4. Since in many schools teachers are required to teach more than one subject, candidates should be advised to prepare to teach at least two subjects. Placement bureaus should ascertain which subject combinations are in greatest demand in the secondary schools of the particular territory.
5. For the major language in addition to two years of high school work, not less than 30 semester hours (45 quarter hours) should be required (of which approximately 16 hours should normally be devoted to the language and 14 hours to literature). For a teaching minor in a modern foreign language, approximately 20 semester hours (30 quarter hours) following upon a two-year high school course should be required (of which 12 hours should normally be allotted to the language and 8 hours to courses in literature). An attempt should be made to measure the attainment of various skills on the part of prospective teachers by a more scientific and accurate method than merely by the completion of a certain number of semester hours of work.
6. An adequate oral command of the language should be required of all major and all minor students in a foreign language who plan to teach the subject.
7. Whenever feasible, colleges should make arrangement to permit students who elect a major in a modern foreign language to study abroad in their Junior year under proper supervision and to receive academic credit in all subjects thus completed.
8. Extracurricular opportunities for practice in hearing and speaking the foreign language should be provided

by language departments through the organization of French, German and Spanish houses, language clubs, etc.

9. A properly qualified representative of the modern language department should be placed in charge of the training of its prospective teachers with respect to the subject matter courses and should serve as a liaison officer with the department of education. His duties would be:
 - (a) To examine the academic history of candidates with a view to judging their fitness of specialization in a modern foreign language, and to test their progress at regular intervals.
 - (b) To advise candidates in the proper choice of courses.
 - (c) To give the course in the technique of teaching the subject, and either to conduct personally or to keep in close touch with the work in observation and practice teaching.
 - (d) To be chiefly responsible for recommending the candidates for teaching positions, and to maintain close contact with the placement bureau.
10. Each language department, together with the department of education, should make adequate provision for observation and practice teaching extending over at least one semester.
11. Courses in tests and measurements, psychology of high school subjects and the technique of teaching modern languages should be included among the courses in education required of teaching candidates, since these seem to bear an especially close relationship to problems involved in teaching modern foreign languages.
12. Efforts should be made to induce educational officers to give up any form of certificate for secondary school teachers that does not specify the subject or subjects that the candidate is qualified to teach.
13. Graduation from a four-year college and the fulfillment of a major or minor requirement in a modern foreign language should be regarded as necessary to receive a license to teach that subject in a secondary school.
14. To promote further the professional development of modern language teachers in service, local school boards should seek through bonuses, salary increases or leaves of absence, to encourage the teachers to attend summer courses or regular sessions at centers offering special opportunities for modern language work, and to travel and study abroad.
15. In so far as possible, modern foreign language instruction in high schools should be supervised and inspected by experts in foreign languages.

The Purin report has been summarized here in order to provide a basis of comparison for the Survey engineered by the same man twenty-five years later. It will be noted that the Survey Part IV repeated the data reported in his Chapter II, and that portion of the Survey has not yet been tabulated. It must wait for a later project if it ever gets reported. The above

TABLE I. USABLE RETURNED QUESTIONNAIRES BY PARTS

Parts	Nature of Part and Recipients	Purin's Report	Usable	Ohio Report
I	Academic Preparation—to college department chairmen	433	259	30
II	Professional Training—to schools of education	252	201	36
III	Certification, Placement, Service Conditions—to state chairmen	25	32	1
IV	Teacher Qualifications, Experience, etc.—to selected high school teachers	1225	1237	74

review should help the reader to understand the questionnaire which is reproduced in the Appendix, as drafted by Dr. Purin with some revisions by the writer accepted by him. It is probable that other workers helped prepare this questionnaire.

III. THE 1941 FRENCH TEACHER CENSUS: TEACHER TRAINING⁵

Attention should be called to a survey made about halfway between the times of the Purin report of the *Study* and that of the Federation *Survey* of the 1950's. As most of the data in the 1941 census of French teachers are similar to those in the missing Part IV, only a mention is made of this report for the benefit of readers who may want to review it for comparison purposes. It is being assumed that the status of French teachers would roughly parallel that of the teachers of other languages.

IV. THE DATA OF THE FEDERATION SURVEY; 1949-1953

A. Sources of the Data

In his preliminary report Dr. Purin listed the number of replies received for each part of the questionnaire. He explained how some returns were visibly incomplete, but only the actual tabulation could show the actual number that were usable. Table I gives this information but there is no way of learning how many questionnaires were sent out as this task was farmed out to the state chairmen. In Ohio, questionnaires were sent to the forty-five institutions which were members of the Ohio College Association; Part IV was sent to "several hundred" teachers. The discrepancy in the count of Part IV returns may be caused by a miscount; that of Part III will be explained below.

It was decided to report the returns according to the same regions that were established by Wheeler's report on 1925 enrollments⁶ and later used by Purin in his 1929 report. Table II indicates the states plus the District of Columbia (treated as a state in Purin's reference of October 1953 to 42 state chairmen and likewise in this report) as grouped by regions and shows the seven states in italics (underlined in MS) which did not organize for the Survey at all. It was a surprise to Stephen Freeman, whose stirring speech had spark-plugged the Survey, to learn that his state of Vermont was one of these. It will be noticed that these states were either small in size (Connecticut, Delaware, Rhode Island, Vermont) or small in population (Arizona, Nevada, Utah). Of the 42 state surveys, the nine which failed to return questionnaires are marked with an asterisk (*). In Purin's list (page 307 in October 1953 *Modern Language Journal*) the states of Florida and Oregon, which did not report, were not so marked. This report, then, is based on returns from 33 states but of the sixteen states not included the separate Ohio data are recorded from the Beery report.

B. Problems of Tabulation

In many instances tabulation was difficult or impossible because of the inefficient manner of response. For example, in answer to a definite question the respondent would, instead of writing a reply in the blank, attach a booklet of

⁵ Arma Pauline McCreary and James B. Tharp, in *French Review*, Vol. XV, No. 6, pages 493-500 (May 1942).

⁶ C. A. Wheeler et al. *Enrollment in the Foreign Languages in Secondary Schools and Colleges of the United States*. 1928, Macmillan; 453 pages; Vol. IV of the "Study" report.

TABLE II

Region	Names of States	No. of States Which Had		
		No Sur.	No Rep.	Reported
I	NEW ENGLAND— <i>Connecticut</i> , Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, <i>Rhode Island</i> , Vermont	3		3
II	MIDDLE STATES— <i>Delaware</i> , *District of Columbia, Maryland, New Jersey, New York, *Pennsylvania	1	2	3
III	SOUTH—*Alabama, *Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, *North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Virginia, West Virginia		3	8
IV	NORTH CENTRAL—Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Michigan, *Minnesota, *Ohio†, Wisconsin		2†	5
V	WEST CENTRAL—Arkansas, Kansas, Missouri, Nebraska, Oklahoma			5
VI	SOUTHWEST— <i>Arizona</i> , Colorado, <i>Nevada</i> , *New Mexico, Texas, <i>Utah</i>	3	1	2
VII	NORTHWEST—*Idaho, Montana, North Dakota, Oregon, South Dakota, Washington, Wyoming		1	6
VIII	California			1
	Totals	7	9†	33

States in italics—no survey; states marked *—no report; Ohio, marked †—separate report.

many pages of information (often none of which was pertinent) and leave it to the tabulators to search out the answer. Much valuable time was spent to no avail attempting to find answers that would be usable. Such respondents either lacked interest in the survey or were unwilling to devote time to report with care and accuracy.

In some cases the respondent probably had no definite answer, but his comment was hard to interpret. In response to the question on course hours required for minors, one respondent wrote: "We have scarcely any education majors 'minoring' in French or Spanish. We let them take anything they wish for which they are prepared. Their preparation will be sadly incomplete in any case. We always recommend the most advanced composition and conversation courses they are capable of and all the literature they can get in."

In many cases whole sections were left blank. In other cases the replies were so grossly inaccurate or improbable ("72 weeks in a quarter"; "320 semester hours of electives"; for example) that one wondered if the respondent really was

giving a serious answer. The writer is greatly indebted to the three workers who analyzed and tabulated the data reported here.

C. Report on Part I—Survey of the Academic Preparation of Modern Language Teachers

The questionnaire required respondents to indicate whether their school operated on the semester or quarter system and the number of weeks in such time units. Semesters seemed to range from 13 to 18 weeks and quarters ranged from 10 to 12 weeks. The range for quarters is probably accurate due to calendar shifts, but it is likely that the reply giving 13 weeks as the length of a semester is based on a misunderstanding of the question. For convenience of reporting, all quarter-hour statistics were converted into terms of semester-hours.

1a. Credit Requirements in the Foreign Language Courses

Table III gives the averages of semester credit-hours required in the various regions and in the typical state (Ohio) for majors, first-minors, and second-minors beyond two units

TABLE III. DISTRIBUTION BY REGIONS IN SEMESTER-HOURS OF AVERAGE REQUIREMENTS IN LANGUAGE COURSE WORK

Regions	Major	1st Minor	2nd Major
I—New England	28	15	8
II—Middle	26	16	14
III—South	27	15	14
IV—North Central	29	15	15
Ohio	25(36-20)	16(24-12)	15(20-11)
V—West Central	23	14	14
VI—Southwest	28	14	13
VII—Northwest	28	15	14
VIII—California	31	16	16

(or equivalent) of previous high school preparation. The figure in parentheses after the averages for Ohio show the range of the colleges responding, from high to low.

The Purin report of 1929 found a nation-wide median requirement of 24 semester hours based on two units of entrance credit or the equivalent: the minimum for a minor was about 14 hours. Except in the West Central region, the requirements have increased slightly in the 50's. It will be noted that in most of the regions the requirements for a major are nearly twice the credit-hours for the minors. Only in New England is there any significant difference between a first and a second minor. As a matter of fact, it is likely that the situation obtaining in Ohio is true in most of the states, namely that it is the minimum set by state certification laws that automatically defines the requirement for a minor in a subject. Most schools have the cooperation of the certifying agency of the state which usually respects the recommendations of the teacher-training institution. Usually the certificate will indicate the number of credit-hours accumulated, so that prospective employers may see how far beyond the state minimum the teacher has subject-matter preparation.

It is interesting to note how the various states differ in the minimum requirements for teaching the academic and special subjects in the high school. In Ohio, "special" certificates authorize the holder to teach the subject in grades 1 to 12, and consequently requirements are higher. It can be pointed out that competent teachers of "special" subjects must be highly skilled performers in order to command

the respect of pupils, colleagues and patrons. The foreign languages are considered merely "academic" subjects like English or mathematics. On the other hand, the languages are favored as being one of the few subject areas for which the minimum college requirement is based on a prerequisite of two high school units. Applicants who do not have the high school preparation must do the equivalent (6 to 8 semester hours) before the minimum begins to count.

In the Appendix is reproduced a table which gives the minimum requirements for the various states.⁷

It will be noted that six states still issue blanket certificates for foreign language teaching. Eleven states (including Ohio) have a 15-hour minimum; five states require less than 15 (12 to 10); but twenty-four states require more than 15 (from the 36 in Illinois to the 16 in Oklahoma). In Kentucky the requirement, "College Major," is not defined by the state. For the 40 states giving specific numbers, the average is 19 hours.⁸

If consideration of these minimum requirements be somewhat discouraging, we may be heartened to learn that the large majority of the teachers certified offer considerably more than the minimum requirements. At least it will please us to assume that the situation in Ohio is typical of that in the other states. Table IV shows the number of foreign language teachers certified in Ohio during four years at two-year intervals, the number having the 15-hour minimum, and the numbers having more by 5-hour increments. For comparison, two "academic" subjects (English and Mathematics) and one "special subject" (physical education) are reported also.

⁷ Prepared from *A Manual on Certification Requirements for School Personnel in the United States*, published as a joint project of the United States Office of Education and the National Commission of Teacher Education and Certification and Professional Standards 1953.

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⁸ 36 hours-1 state; 27-1; 24-6; 20-2; 18-13; 16-1; 15-11; 12-3; 10-2.

TABLE IV.⁹ DISTRIBUTION OF THE TEACHING CERTIFICATES ISSUED IN OHIO FOR 1953 IN CERTAIN SUBJECTS BY SEMESTER-HOUR PREPARATION

Subjects	Certificates Issued				Minimum		Certificates Above Minimum				
	1947	1949	1951	1953	15 hr.	%	16-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-plus
French	143	191	186	186	28	15.1	100	43	10	4	1
German	39	56	59	53	7	13.2	34	8	4	—	—
Spanish	153	66	177	157	26	16.5	72	39	15	1	4
Latin	104	79	106	95	21	22.1	59	13	1	—	—
English	1060	1477	1199	1295	175	13.5	592	339	151	29	21
Math	323	501	573	354	29	8.2	167	132	22	4	—
Phys. Ed.	365	795	820	506	—	11.6	56	110	112	189	39

⁹ Excerpted from Tables XVI and XVII of *Teacher Certification in 1953* by Harold J. Bowers, published by the Department of Education, State of Ohio, Columbus.

Perhaps we should not worry too much about the *minimum* statistics, if no more than one-sixth of the teachers certified in modern languages and one-fifth in Latin finish college with minimum teaching requirements. Only a few less have minima in English and physical education; only about one-twelfth of the mathematics teachers offer minima. The relative numbers of teachers certified over an 8-year period indicate that the supply continues steady.

Bowers reports¹⁰ that 19,405 secondary teachers (not counting those called "special") were employed in October 1953 in Ohio, of whom 2,317 were new teachers. The forty-eight colleges accredited for teacher training in Ohio graduated 1,741 high school teachers in 1953, not all of whom were employed in Ohio; moreover, in 1953 there were 962 applications for secondary certification from outside of Ohio. Those who worry about the inroads made by under-qualified teachers who get jobs with *temporary* high school certificates should note that only a total of 221 full time and 192 substitute teachers held such certificates in Ohio in 1953 in *all* the academic subjects. There was no breakdown for the language areas. Furthermore, it is the practice in Ohio that no matter how great the emergency for which an under-qualified teacher may petition for temporary certification, it is granted only to persons having at least six college semester credits, or the equivalent. Such certification is good for only one year and may be renewed only on condition

that six additional credits in the subject be obtained during the intervening summer vacation. It may be observed that after earning only three more credits during the second summer, the applicant would possess the state minimum for provisional certification.

1b. *Quality of Preparation in Subject-Matter Courses*

The questionnaire asked the language departments to indicate the minimum quality of work for which students majoring or minor-ing in a foreign language would be recommended for teaching certificates. Point-hour averages were to be based on a scale where A (Excellent) equals 4 points; B (good) equals 3; C (Fair) equals 2; D (Poor) equals 1; and E (Failure) equals 0.

The Purin report of 1929 reported quality in a different way. It was noted that 83 per cent of the departments reporting demanded a grade of "good" (3.00 points) or higher for acceptance of prospective teachers as majors, while only 62 per cent made the requirement of other students.

The Survey found a fairly uniform requirement for both majors and minors of 2.00 to 2.50 grade points in all the regions except in California where the requirement was higher. In Ohio, the twenty-five colleges reporting on this item had the same requirement for ma-

¹⁰ *Ibid.*

TABLE III. DISTRIBUTION BY REGIONS IN SEMESTER-HOURS OF AVERAGE REQUIREMENTS IN LANGUAGE COURSE WORK

Regions	Major	1st Minor	2nd Major
I—New England	28	15	8
II—Middle	26	16	14
III—South	27	15	14
IV—North Central	29	15	15
Ohio	25(36-20)	16(24-12)	15(20-11)
V—West Central	23	14	14
VI—Southwest	28	14	13
VII—Northwest	28	15	14
VIII—California	31	16	16

(or equivalent) of previous high school preparation. The figure in parentheses after the averages for Ohio show the range of the colleges responding, from high to low.

The Purin report of 1929 found a nation-wide median requirement of 24 semester hours based on two units of entrance credit or the equivalent: the minimum for a minor was about 14 hours. Except in the West Central region, the requirements have increased slightly in the 50's. It will be noted that in most of the regions the requirements for a major are nearly twice the credit-hours for the minors. Only in New England is there any significant difference between a first and a second minor. As a matter of fact, it is likely that the situation obtaining in Ohio is true in most of the states, namely that it is the minimum set by state certification laws that automatically defines the requirement for a minor in a subject. Most schools have the cooperation of the certifying agency of the state which usually respects the recommendations of the teacher-training institution. Usually the certificate will indicate the number of credit-hours accumulated, so that prospective employers may see how far beyond the state minimum the teacher has subject-matter preparation.

It is interesting to note how the various states differ in the minimum requirements for teaching the academic and special subjects in the high school. In Ohio, "special" certificates authorize the holder to teach the subject in grades 1 to 12, and consequently requirements are higher. It can be pointed out that competent teachers of "special" subjects must be highly skilled performers in order to command

the respect of pupils, colleagues and patrons. The foreign languages are considered merely "academic" subjects like English or mathematics. On the other hand, the languages are favored as being one of the few subject areas for which the minimum college requirement is based on a prerequisite of two high school units. Applicants who do not have the high school preparation must do the equivalent (6 to 8 semester hours) before the minimum begins to count.

In the Appendix is reproduced a table which gives the minimum requirements for the various states.⁷

It will be noted that six states still issue blanket certificates for foreign language teaching. Eleven states (including Ohio) have a 15-hour minimum; five states require less than 15 (12 to 10); but twenty-four states require more than 15 (from the 36 in Illinois to the 16 in Oklahoma). In Kentucky the requirement, "College Major," is not defined by the state. For the 40 states giving specific numbers, the average is 19 hours.⁸

If consideration of these minimum requirements be somewhat discouraging, we may be heartened to learn that the large majority of the teachers certified offer considerably more than the minimum requirements. At least it will please us to assume that the situation in Ohio is typical of that in the other states. Table IV shows the number of foreign language teachers certified in Ohio during four years at two-year intervals, the number having the 15-hour minimum, and the numbers having more by 5-hour increments. For comparison, two "academic" subjects (English and Mathematics) and one "special subject" (physical education) are reported also.

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1b. *Quality of Preparation in Subject-Matter Courses*

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The Survey found a fairly uniform requirement for both majors and minors of 2.00 to 2.50 grade points in all the regions except in California where the requirement was higher. In Ohio, the twenty-five colleges reporting on this item had the same requirement for ma-

¹⁰ *Ibid.*

TABLE V. DISTRIBUTION BY REGIONS IN 5-HOUR INCREMENTS, THE NUMBERS OF SCHOOLS REQUIRING GENERAL BACKGROUND IN ENGLISH, SCIENCE, SOCIAL STUDIES, PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND MILITARY

Regions	English					Natural Sciences				
	0-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	21-25	0-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	21-25
I	—	11	7	1	—	—	6	11	1	1
II	—	5	11	1	1	—	12	5	1	—
III*	—	6	57	13	1	1	29	29	10	3
IV	2	19	18	3	2	2	20	17	1	2
Ohio	22 schools—av. 12 (18-6)					22 schools—av. 10 (20-0)				
V	—	14	10	2	—	—	19	4	2	1
VI†	—	3	15	1	1	—	8	10	3	1
VII	—	3	6	2	1	—	3	7	2	—
VIII	—	8	3	1	—	—	3	7	2	—
Totals	2	69	127	24	6	3	100	90	22	8

* 1 school in 31-35 hour group; 1 in 36-40.

† 1 school required 36-40 hours.

Regions	Social Sciences					Physical and Military Science				
	0-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	21-25	0-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	21-25
I	—	4	12	2	1	6	5	1	—	—
II*	—	6	8	2	2	8	2	1	1	—
III†	—	16	36	18	—	32	28	3	2	1
IV‡	2	12	19	5	3	15	5	2	—	—
Ohio	22 schools—av. 15 (30-0)					18 schools—av. 13 (24-2)				
V	—	12	11	3	1	20	3	1	—	—
VI	—	9	10	2	1	15	1	1	—	—
VII§	—	2	3	5	1	3	6	—	—	—
VIII	—	4	6	—	2	5	4	—	—	—
Totals	2	65	105	37	10	104	54	9	4	1

* In Social Sciences 1 requires 26-30.

† 1 requires 31-35 and 1 requires 56-60.

‡ 1 requires 56-60.

§ 1 requires 26-30.

jors and minors: ranging from 3.00 to 1.00, the median was 2.10. In the institution in which the writer serves, the requirement in majors, minors, and in professional courses is 2.25. It may be said that only a very few "squeak by" with the minimum; the great majority have comfortably larger point-hour averages, and our area gets its fair share of honor graduates, *cum laude* and *summa cum laude*.

2. General Education (non-professional) Subject Requirements for Prospective Modern Language Teachers

Question 2 of the survey of academic prepara-

tion of teachers-in-training attempted to learn the general background of content in English, Natural Sciences, Social Sciences, Physical Education and Military Sciences, and other electives apart from major or minor teaching requirements and the requirements in professional education courses.

Table V shows within the various regions, in 5-hour increments up to 25 hours, the numbers of schools reporting in each number-group. Departures from these numbers were very few. A quick glance at totals shows a preponderance of 11-15 hours in English and Social Studies, a few more schools in the 6-10 group in Physical

TABLE VI. DISTRIBUTION BY REGIONS OF THE SCHOOLS REPORTING ON ORAL PROFICIENCY REQUIREMENTS
"Is a speaking knowledge required?"

Regions		I	II	III	IV	Ohio	V	VI	VII	VIII	Totals*
Majors	Yes	9	10	13	17	9	5	6	3	4	67
	No	12	11	73	27	20	32	22	11	11	199
	No reply					2					
Minors	Yes	3	2	2	6	4	1	1	1	2	18
	No	8	11	74	34	21	24	26	17	12	216
	No reply					6					

*Not including Ohio.

Education and Military Science. It is possible that many smaller schools have no military science offering. The report for Ohio was given in terms of averages and these averages are borne out by the other regions except in physical education and military science.

The reports on other electives were so scattered that it did not seem worthwhile to show them. In all the regions 9 schools reported requirements in the 0-5 group; on the other hand, 3 schools required 71-75 hours and one required 86-90 hours. As usual, some of the wide divergencies may be due to misunderstood directions.

It is probable that most of the departments reporting are in liberal arts colleges where the background in courses in so-called "general education" is given stronger emphasis than in professional colleges. At the institution of the writer a certain number of our graduates take two degrees (the Arts-Education program) which results in a stronger preparation in general education—including some appreciation courses in fine arts and music—and also a stronger major subject.

3-4. *Speaking Knowledge of the Foreign Language*

Question 3 asked: "Does your institution require special certification of speaking knowledge of graduating students who expect to teach the foreign language?" Question 4 asked: "How and by whom is the speaking knowledge tested?"

Before giving the data on these questions it may be interesting to the reader to learn which languages figured in the replies of the departments in order of frequency. Region IV was the

only one to list Polish and Russian in 5th and 4th places, respectively. Regions IV, V, VII and VIII did not mention Italian, which occupied 4th place in the other four regions. German was uniformly in third place in all regions except I where it had second place; Spanish was in third place in Region I. French was in first place and Spanish in second place in all regions except V and VIII, where Spanish was first and French second. It can only be guessed whether more complete returns would have changed this order of importance.

Table VI gives the number of schools which replied to the question on requirement of speaking knowledge. It may be that there was considerable wishful thinking in the replies in view of the fact that replies to question 4 indicate that usually the passing of "conversation" courses was the only measurement applied. The instructors of such courses exercised their best judgment in a wide variety of ways and gave low grades for poor quality no doubt, but data on "oral proficiency" are very vague. In some cases the head of the department or an instructor native to the language controlled the testing and in a few cases there was a committee of three teachers or a trained *linguistician*—as such a specialist has been dubbed to distinguish him from a mere linguist.

After considering the usual misinterpretation of such a question, the bulk of figures shows little official attempt to certify this particular skill. The very great difficulty—rather near impossibility—of valid objective measurement and the still greater difficulty of administering such tests even if we had them are reasons why teaching certificates show no entries about the performance skills of the holders.

TABLE VII. DISTRIBUTION OF AVERAGE* CREDIT REQUIREMENTS AT THREE LEVELS OF INSTRUCTION FOR CERTAIN COURSE WORK

Study Topics	All Regions—Majors			Ohio					
				Majors			Minors		
	Elem	Inter	Adv	Elem	Inter	Adv	Elem	Inter	Adv
Conversation	10(27—2)	11(31—2)	13(43—1)	5(10—1)	4(6—1)	2(5—1)	3(8—1)	3(5—1)	3(5—1)
Composition	6(12—1)	10(24—2)	10(36—1)	3(3—1)	3(7—1)	4(7—2)	3(3—1)	2(6—2)	2(6—2)
Conv.-Comp.	15(43—3)	18(42—3)	15(56—2)	6(8—3)	6(10—1)	5(7—2)	6(8—3)	6(10—1)	6(7—3)
Gram. Rev.	6	8(15—2)	6(17—3)	4 schools offer to majors, advanced, 3 hours					
Phon.-Pron.	(8 9—7)	3(6—2)	5(12—1)	5 schools majors, 11 schools majors & minors: adv; 6—1					
Hist. Lang.	3	—	5(9—3)	5 schools offer, 3 require of majors; 2 or 3 hrs.					
Hist. Civil	5(12—2)	5(15—3)	6(4—2)	17 schools offer, 5 require of majors; 2 or 3 hrs.					
Survey of Lit.	7(10—6)	10(30—6)	38(90—6)	19 schools majors; 11 schools majors & minors, adv; 17—2					

* The numbers in parentheses show range from high to low.

Perhaps it is well that we are not forced to prove that teachers can *not* teach successfully without a high degree of oral-aural skill.

5. Requirements in language courses

Question 5 attempted to break down topically the requirements in subject matter using "conversation," "composition" and a combination of the two for the skills and "elementary," "intermediate," and "advanced" as the three levels. This seemed desirable since not always are freshmen alone taking elementary courses, sophomores taking intermediate courses and juniors and seniors taking advanced courses. The question was undoubtedly hard to answer, particularly to apportion properly the work required of majors and minors. It can be assumed that both groups took elementary and intermediate courses and that advanced work was done mostly by majors. Even courses like "Grammar Review" and "History of the Language," clearly marked "For juniors and seniors," were listed by some respondents as elementary requirements (one each in Texas, Mississippi and Ohio).

Table VII gives the tabulations for what they may be worth, for majors in all the regions combined and in Ohio for majors and minors. After the basic skills, the special courses show little uniformity, at least in terms of the questionnaire. Ten states made no report on the grammar review course; only four schools of the 30 reporting in Ohio offered such a

course. The course in history of the language was reported in only six states; five schools in Ohio offer it but only three require it of majors. Phonetics and Pronunciation, as a separate course for advanced students, is not widely offered. Two schools in Ohio called this work part of the course in methods and one said it was done as outside reading under direction of a senior professor.

Not all the states reported a course in history of the civilization, as most schools said such content was covered in day-by-day work and was closely integrated with literature. It was Dr. Purin's desire to break down the content of this course, which he considered as important. In Ohio, only 17 schools reported the course; 13 schools did not reply; in only six Ohio schools is the course required of majors.

As might be expected, practically all of the 17 Ohio courses contained the four topics listed to be checked: Origins of the People, History of Art, History of Music, History of Philosophy. Other topics written in were: 8 schools—history; 6—geography; 3—government, social life, modern problems; 2—industries, cultural etymology, brief survey of literature; 1—architecture, educational system, philosophy of science.

The pessimists among us always ask how much of such knowledge of civilization do our teachers know—course or no course. The writer's experiment testing a group of twenty-five students in a methods class—all seniors in

French—some years ago is a case in point.¹¹

Two tests, A and B, were made of 57 items each on geography and travel, history, fine arts and music, science and education, and literature. Names of persons and places were described in English on a test sheet; all the answers to both forms were listed on a check sheet; naturally only one form was used at a time. The average of the class was 36 points, ranging from 25–48. The 48 score was made by a social-studies major. When the same test was given to a 10th grade high school class that had never studied French, the average was 25 points—the same score made by one of the college seniors. As you may surmise, scores were fairly high in literature, but woefully weak in the arts and sciences. Perhaps Purin is right—there ought to be a course.

In summary of the academic training of teachers it may be said that the requirements for a major in a modern language are not much below the 30 semester hours recommended by Purin in 1929, but the minor, usually set by the minimum of a state certification law, can stand an increase. There is evidence of improvement here and the number of states which issue blanket certificates is greatly reduced. Although it

still appears next to impossible to require teachers to show evidence of oral proficiency before certification, we may take hope in the recent rapid growth in listening-practice laboratories in colleges and some increase in the study-travel projects which take students into foreign countries. Colleges have been experimenting to find suitable programs in general education. The tendency of language majors to elect minors in the allied subjects of English or Social Studies is a factor giving strength to teacher preparation. The present poverty of advanced course work in grammar review, phonetics, language history and civilization may not be too depressing since teachers are likely to get such course work in taking the M.A. degree. The almost universal practice of school systems to grant salary increases for the M.A. and the natural desire for self-improvement—still present in many teachers enthusiastic about their work, believe it or not—should bring advanced training to a fair portion of our teachers.

JAMES B. THARP

Ohio State University

(to be continued)

¹¹ James B. Tharp, "A Test on French Civilization" *French Review*, Vol. VIII: 283–287 (March 1935).

* * *

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* * *

Qualifications for Secondary School Teachers of Modern Foreign Languages

IT IS VITALLY important that teachers of modern foreign languages be adequately prepared for a task which more and more Americans are declaring essential to the national welfare. Though a majority of the language teachers in our schools are well trained, many have been poorly or inadequately prepared, often through no fault of their own. The undersigned therefore present this statement of what they consider the minimal, good, and superior qualifications of a secondary-school teacher of a modern foreign language.

We regret that the minimum here stated *cannot yet* include real proficiency in the foreign tongue or more than a superficial knowledge of the foreign culture. It must be clearly understood that teaching by persons who cannot meet this minimal standard will not produce results which our profession can endorse as making the distinctive contribution of language learning to American life in the second half of the twentieth century.

Our lowest level of preparation is not recommended. It is here stated only as a point of departure which carries with it the responsibility for continued study and self-improvement through graduate and in-service training, toward the levels of good and superior preparation.

Those who subscribe to this statement hope that the teacher of foreign languages (1) will have the personal qualities which make an effective teacher, (2) has received a well-balanced education, including a knowledge of our own American culture, and (3) has received the appropriate training in professional education, psychology, and secondary-school methods. It is not our purpose to define further these criteria. We are concerned here with the specific criteria for a teacher of modern foreign languages.

1. AURAL UNDERSTANDING

Minimal: The ability to get the sense of what an educated native says when he is enunciating carefully and speaking simply on a general subject.

Good: The ability to understand conversation at average tempo, lectures, and news broadcasts.

Superior: The ability to follow closely and with ease all types of standard speech, such as rapid or group conversation, plays and movies.

Test: These abilities can be tested by dictations, by the Listening Comprehension Tests of the College Entrance Examination Board—thus far developed for French, German, and Spanish—or by similar tests for these and other languages, with an extension in range and difficulty for the superior level.

2. SPEAKING

Minimal: The ability to talk on prepared topics (e.g., for classroom situations) without obvious faltering, and to use the common expressions needed for getting around in the foreign country, speaking with a pronunciation readily understandable to a native.

Good: The ability to talk with a native without making glaring mistakes, and with a command of vocabulary and syntax sufficient to express one's thoughts in sustained conversation. This implies speech at normal speed with good pronunciation and intonation.

Superior: The ability to approximate native speech in vocabulary, intonation, and pronunciation (e.g., the ability to exchange ideas and to be at ease in social situations).

Test: For the present, this ability has to be tested by interview, or by a recorded set of questions with a blank disc or tape for recording answers.

3. READING

Minimal: The ability to grasp directly (i.e., without translating) the meaning of simple, non-technical prose, except for an occasional word.

Good: The ability to read with immediate comprehension prose and verse of average difficulty and mature content.

Superior: The ability to read, almost as easily as in English, material of considerable difficulty, such as essays and literary criticism.

Test: These abilities can be tested by a graded series of timed reading passages, with comprehension questions and multiple-choice or free response answers.

4. WRITING

Minimal: The ability to write correctly sentences or paragraphs such as would be developed orally for classroom situations, and the ability to write a short, simple letter.

Good: The ability to write a simple "free composition" with clarity and correctness in vocabulary, idiom, and syntax.

Superior: The ability to write on a variety of subjects with idiomatic naturalness, ease of expression, and some feeling for the style of the language.

Test: These abilities can be tested by multiple-choice syntax items, dictations, translation of English sentences or paragraphs, and a controlled letter or free composition.

5. LANGUAGE ANALYSIS

Minimal: A working command of the sound-patterns and grammar-patterns of the foreign language, and a knowledge of its main differences from English.

Good: A basic knowledge of the historical development and present characteristics of the language, and an awareness of the difference between the language as spoken and as written.

Superior: Ability to apply knowledge of descriptive, comparative, and historical linguistics to the language-teaching situation.

Test: Such information and insight can be tested for levels 1 and 2 by multiple-choice and free response items on pronunciation, intonation patterns, and syntax, for levels 2 and 3, items on philology and descriptive linguistics.

6. CULTURE

Minimal: An awareness of language as an essential element among the learned and shared experiences that combine to form a particular culture, and a rudimentary knowledge of the geography, history, literature, art, social customs, and contemporary civilization of the foreign people.

Good: First-hand knowledge of some literary masterpieces, an understanding of the principal ways in which the foreign culture resembles and differs from our own, and possession of an organized body of information on the foreign people and their civilization.

Superior: An enlightened understanding of the foreign people and their culture, achieved through personal contact, preferably by travel and residence abroad, through study of systematic descriptions of the foreign culture, and through study of literature and the arts.

Test: Such information and insight can be tested by multiple-choice literary and cultural acquaintance tests for levels 1 and 2; for level 3, written comments on passages of prose or poetry that discuss or reveal significant aspects of the foreign culture.

7. PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION

Note the final paragraph of the prefatory statement.

Minimal: Some knowledge of effective methods and techniques of language teaching.

Good: The ability to apply knowledge of methods and techniques to the teaching situation (e.g., audio-visual techniques) and to relate one's teaching of the language to other areas of the curriculum.

Superior: A mastery of recognized teaching methods, and the ability to experiment with and evaluate new methods and techniques.

Test: Such knowledge and ability can be tested by multiple-choice answers to questions on pedagogy and language-teaching methods, plus written comment on language-teaching situations.

* * *

The foregoing statement was prepared by the Steering Committee¹ of the Foreign Language Program of the Modern Language Association of America in the spring of 1955, and was subsequently endorsed for publication by the MLA Executive Council, by the Modern Language Committee of the Secondary Education Board, by the Committee on the Language Program of the American Council of Learned Societies, and by the executive boards or councils of the following national and regional organizations:

Nat'l Federation of Mod. Lang. Teachers Associations
 Amer. Assoc. of Teachers of French
 Amer. Assoc. of Teachers of German
 Amer. Assoc. of Teachers of Italian
 Amer. Assoc. of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese
 Amer. Assoc. of Teachers of Slavic and East European Languages
 Central States Mod. Lang. Teachers Association
 Middle States Assoc. of Mod. Lang. Teachers
 New England Mod. Lang. Association
 N. E. Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages
 N. W. Conference on Foreign Language Teaching
 Philological Assoc. of the Pacific Coast
 Rocky Mountain Mod. Lang. Association

South Atlantic Mod. Lang. Association
 South-Central Mod. Lang. Association

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CONVERT

Calvin Grieder, professor of school administration, University of Colorado, said in the *Nation's Schools* for September 1953 (p. 6): "Until recently, I was sort of neutral, but . . . recent contributions have converted me to an affirmative position. I got to thinking of my own upbringing in a bilingual home, an enriching background which millions of Americans, like me, can scarcely imagine living without. But bilingualism in the home is becoming a rare thing, and it is proper for the school to try to supply the next best substitute, bilingualism in the school. I venture to predict that FL teaching in elementary schools (may it prosper!) will improve the teaching at the high school level."

* * *

The Intensive Method: An Experiment

MODERN languages, if they are to be of much use to students in this Air Age, should be taught with more stress on oral work than on written exercises. Some language teachers have felt that the subject matter could not be thoroughly mastered without having it set down on paper by students. When the authorities at the State Teachers College at Eau Claire, Wisconsin, gave permission to offer an intensive course in French in the fall of 1948, the writer decided to find out for himself how much subject matter could be retained by students who had no written assignments and did no written work in class other than a passage of dictation from time to time. The class met twice as often as the conventional class in French. At first it was thought unnecessary to assign work to be studied out of class, but it became unavoidable, in order to cover the ground usually taken up in the course of the year, to ask for a half hour or so of preparation before coming to class. But this assignment was not to be written.

The class began with an enrollment of six. Thus each person had individual attention from the start. In a few weeks three students asked to transfer to this class from other sections where the conventional treatment included written assignments. One of these students was a leader in the class in which he found himself. Was he going to fall behind in the intensive group where the students already had a pronunciation superior to any beginning students we have yet known? He adjusted himself to the oral method and soon became the star of the class. The other two who transferred were on the verge of failure and were wondering whether they should drop the subject, but decided instead to try the intensive class. Their work improved at once. Not only was their work passable, they were doing what we consider average work within a month.

Just what went on in this intensive class? During the first month new material was recited by the instructor, using as many cognates

as possible so that the words could be easily recognized. Maps, pictures, and gestures served to clarify the ideas presented. The subject was reviewed many times by means of questions, and sentences with blanks where missing words were filled in. Even before the class did any reading, they took dictation at the blackboard. Mistakes were corrected, and they were surprisingly few. Thus the ears were recognizing the sounds as they heard them. Similarities in sounds in the French and English languages were pointed out, then a few rules for pronunciation were illustrated. There was much drill on pronunciation the first few weeks, with such gratifying results that little time has since been needed for mistakes in articulation.

How much grammar do these students know? The subject has not been neglected though it has not been emphasized. At the second meeting of the class the students were able to fill in blanks with the proper definite article, after a brief explanation had been made. There has been no translating from one language to the other. Students begin to think in a foreign language by using words as they are related to other words in the language.

What kind of tests are given these students? The instructor asks questions on the lessons covered. Answers are in complete sentences. A sheet of paper is handed the student, containing sentences with blanks to fill in. A group of sentences is read wherein the verbs in the present tense are to be changed to another tense. Adjectives in parentheses are made to agree with their modifiers. Sometimes a passage is dictated to test hearing and spelling. The passage is dictated three times. First it is played on a record from the Linguaphone Series; then the instructor dictates the material slowly; finally, the record is played again while students check for spelling and accents.

How is the plan working out? In February 1949, cooperative tests were given to all sections of beginning French. The intensive section did as well as the others in vocabulary,

with an average percentile of 70. They fell below the average (64) of all classes in the matter of comprehension, with a percentile of 58. They were not expected to do so well in grammar. The average percentile was 55, while the other groups had an average of 71. The cooperative tests cannot check on pronunciation, ability to comprehend the spoken language, or the ability to express oneself in idiomatic French. These three objectives are the very ones we have concentrated on in the intensive course. It is encouraging that they showed up as well as they did in the cooperative test. We are more than content with their ability to converse, for we hear them making spontaneous remarks in French outside of class as well as in. The students of the conventional course seldom think to greet one with a "Bonjour" out of class, but the intensive class rarely fails to follow this up with a "Comment allez-vous?"

Do they remember what we studied the first weeks of the year about the geography of France, about weather, numbers and dates? They have retained more than the conventional classes judging by answers to questions on these subjects put unexpectedly. When new matter is taken up in class it is explained in French. When it is apparent that something is not understood, we fall back upon English. This is necessary more often in the conventional class than in the intensive class. For this reason we were surprised that the last named failed to show up better in the cooperative test in the matter of comprehension.

Sometimes when we finish our assignment early, the class is divided into groups and told to converse in French. There is no time lost, no awkward pauses in the intensive class. The hum of voices begins to grow in volume, for we find that the groups tend to break up into still smaller groups. The instructor, alert for lagging conversation and ready to join in, if necessary, to keep things moving, does more listening than talking. This sort of thing he has never been able to inspire in students of the conventional method.

Since February we have had students, both good and poor, asking to transfer into the intensive course. The instructor has begun to increase the oral work in the conventional classes

at the expense of the written assignment because our experiment with the intensive course proves to our way of thinking that the student who can speak and understand the spoken language is able to read as well as the student trained by the old method. The student of the intensive class has a feeling for the idiomatic form of expression, an intuition as to the way a thing should be said but he sometimes fails to be exact grammatically. One reason for this is the speed with which one is expected to bring forth remarks in a conversation, leaving little time for reasoning about rules. But there is no awkward hemming and hawing, such as those of us who first studied the language by the old grammar method have experienced on trying to talk with French people on first arriving in France. The student of the intensive method will express himself so much more like a Frenchman thinks, that the occasional errors of grammar will not detract.

It will be interesting to see how this intensive group will compare with the students of the conventional classes when they are thrown together in the intermediate course next year. Doubtless they will be in need of grammar review. But when we discuss the books to be read in class, and explain (in French) the meaning of words and passages, who will be the leaders? There is no question that those who can put their thoughts into spontaneous speech will outdistance the products of the conventional method. When a French program appears over the radio, which group will pick the words out of the air with comprehension? Which group will remember longest the everyday expressions of courtesy and comment?

Writing a foreign language is a worthy and admirable accomplishment. We feel that the oral approach is easier on the nerves, is quicker, is more practical, and in the long run it is the best method to learn to write the language. It is the method which will best equip the student to continue using the language without needing a teacher to lean upon. Seek first the oral skills, and the written can be added as desired.

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Filosofía y Arte de Espronceda

ES VERDAD casi axiomática en el terreno literario que el escritor, cuando a la vez desea ser artista, revela sólo incidentalmente sus "ideas" filosóficas y artísticas en vez de limitarse a sistemas de filosofía o tratados de estética. Aunque esta aserción casi parece desvirtuarse en el caso de algunos literatos que por deleite personal se han extasiado en lo filosófico, en el caso de Espronceda estamos lejos de poder hallarnos con un ejemplo típico en que el libre juego del intelecto reflexivo pueda infundir el temor de que se llegue a desembocar en lo disciplinario, metódico y sistemático de un "pensamiento." La variedad multiforme de su estro poético hace pensar precisamente en lo contrario y lleva a la convicción de que en la aciaga existencia de Espronceda así como en su apresurada producción primó, como buen romántico que era, la musa de lo imaginativo y emocional sobre lo reflexivo y razonador. Sin embargo y por ser humano no puede prescindir el poeta del elemento intelectual y de la razón que aparecen en sus obras como el resorte en que se originan sus actividades afectivas y procesos volitivos, dándole al autor su fisonomía propia y distintiva, según el grado de control que les imprime.

Sólo así puede explicarse la actividad de Espronceda como romántico y justificarse que en medio de sus explosiones instintivas, sentimentales y emotivas sea posible hallar "ideas" filosóficas y artísticas, pero no un pensamiento coherente y sostenido. Si no es descabellado imaginar la posibilidad de lo ideológico como generador necesario de sus ajetreos cotidianos y de su producción poética, resultaría por otro lado una obra poco menos que imposible el probar que estas ideas filosóficas y artísticas, esporádicas y todo lo que se quiera, fueron conscientes o no en él. Si no lo fueron, ¿cómo se gestaron?, ¿a qué causa obedecieron o cómo se explica su presencia? Este es el enigma mayor que con carácter indescifrable existe en la vida de Espronceda. Lo cierto es que hay en su obra ideas filosóficas y artísticas cuyo origen y pro-

ceso operatorio se ignora, pero cuya acción permanente y necesaria informa su intensa vida afectiva y volitiva aunque sin llegar a constituir una concepción o sistema coordinado y coherente. Es natural que tales ideas existan a menos que tengamos que habérmola con un tipo emotivo-sentimental burdamente pueril, cosa que Espronceda está muy lejos de ser en cualquier momento.

El problema que se nos presenta, por ahora, es pues captar lo que Espronceda expresa incidentalmente en sus ideas filosóficas y artísticas para así determinar, en la medida de lo posible, los ejes directrices de su producción poética. Sin ir muy lejos se puede hoy estatuir con la mayoría de los críticos y eruditos que Espronceda encarna, por su temperamento personal y por los rasgos distintivos de su producción poética, las cualidades de la escuela a que pertenece de modo que al comprobar la recurrencia de algunos conceptos básicos que motivaron la existencia del vate, desembocaremos accidentalmente en ciertas generalidades sobre lo romántico español.

Juzgando sus obras en conjunto y con una visión panorámica, José de Espronceda se nos presenta como un individuo cuyas aspiraciones, si es que éstas llegaron alguna vez a concretarse, sufren del mal de la insatisfacción y el desengaño. Partiendo del período en que empezaba a orientarse bajo la tutela de Alberto Lista y rematando en las últimas composiciones que produjo su genio, "El Angel y el Poeta," Episodio de "El Diablo Mundo," se observa aunque con tonos de diferente intensidad, la imperiosa necesidad de desahogar un conflicto psíquico, no solucionado, que invade el ánimo del autor. Ocasionalmente y no en armonía con el resto del espíritu que informa a "El Pelayo," ensayo épico zumbón y ampuloso a pesar de los débiles indicios del futuro poeta romántico con que tropezamos, Espronceda apunta versos que son sintomáticos de su disposición anímica, piedra angular de todo concepto filosófico que entonces o después pudiera abrigar:

Mi corazón de lástima llagado,
mi rostro algunas lágrimas cubrieron
el noble anciano al ver acongojado
que tantas lides animoso vieron. . . .¹

Con el corazón traspasado de dolor, el joven Espronceda contempla a este anciano que, a pesar de haber sido animoso en tantas lides, yace acongojado en circunstancias que sus virtudes debieron haberle dado satisfacción personal y no congojas. ¿Que impresión le hace este cuadro a nuestro joven poeta?, ¿qué reflexiones o impulsos sentimentales le ocasionan? El tono y corte del "ensayo épico" no permiten estas expansiones emocionales, pero es sugestivo que el discípulo de Lista coja y reproduzca ésta y otras escenas en que, lejos de transmitirnos una apreciación de la trayectoria humana vista a través del prisma de color de rosa de algunos neo-clasicistas nos ofrece una pintura poco halagadora de lo que al hombre le espera con el correr de los años. Más tarde, días antes de su muerte, el año 1941, para ser exacto, Espronceda ha madurado románticamente y está en condiciones de decirnos:

príncipe condenado a eterno duelo
y a llanto eterno, dame que del mundo
rompa mi alma la prisión sombría,
mis pies desprende de su lodo inmundo.²

Parece evidente que el poeta no puede sentirse satisfecho en una "prisión sombría" o sumidos los pies en "lodo inmundo," tanto más cuanto que llega a implorarlo a un "príncipe condenado" que ejecute la liberación. Esta nota de insatisfacción y desengaño, que oscila entre la desesperación y el ansia mortal de quietismo absoluto, se trasluce con claridad meridiana, a pesar de que parezca incidental, en cada una de las composiciones de Espronceda. Aunque sea imposible, por falta de espacio, elaborar más en detalle sobre estas ideas fundamentales en que descansa "el pensamiento esproncediano," no se puede pasar por alto el discurrir someramente sobre la recurrencia de este concepto, al menos reseñando su aparición aquí o allá en diversas composiciones.

Admira el poeta al sol que pasa ufano, radiante y satisfecho, pero se teme que esa felicidad sea temporal y que "la noche sombría" cubra "la celeste cumbre" en forma tal que se le pueda decir al astro rey "¡ni aun quedará reliquia de tu lumbre!" Si esto ha de suceder así, ¿per-

maneceremos complacidos ante el cambio? No, dice Espronceda, porque entonces habrá muerte y tinieblas, "tu llama pura entonces morirá," predicción no siempre muy halagüeña cuando se goza de la majestad absoluta de que está disfrutando el sol.

Idéntico dejo de inconformidad, insatisfacción, desengaño y desilusión se observa en las canciones en general, particularmente en "El reo a muerte" que está "pensando en el triste día que pronto amanecerá"; en "El Verdugo" que se considera "De los hombres lanzados al desprecio"; y aun en "La canción del pirata" en que la risa despectiva pretende ocultar las zozobras que abriga un corazón que exclama:

no me abandone la suerte
y al mismo que me condena
colgaré de alguna antena. . . .³

¿Podrá sentirse colmado de seguridad el que teme que lo "abandone la suerte" o el que tiene la posibilidad de que, por una condena pendiente, al trocarse los papeles, el colgado sea él mismo?

Todavía más notoria es la insatisfacción en las composiciones sobre asuntos históricos en que la postración humana, la degeneración nacional y continental, el despotismo y otros males similares desconciertan al poeta y lo llevan a los límites del paroxismo lírico.

¡Oh vosotros, del mundo habitantes!
contemplad mi tormento:
Igualarse podrán ¡ah! qué dolores
al dolor que yo siento?⁴

Sin omitir a don Félix de Montemar que va hasta el exceso y el cinismo por saciar sus impulsos insatisfechos y a Adán que debe apresurarse tras mil oportunidades para llenar la vacuidad de su mente, ávida pero no satisfecha de experiencias terrenales, cabe preguntar, ¿cuál o cuáles son las causas de esta insatisfacción constante y permanente que Espronceda revela

¹ José de Espronceda, *Obras Poéticas Completas*, Editorial Sopena Argentina, Buenos Aires, 1944: Ensayo Epico, Fragmentos de un Poema titulado "El Pelayo," Fragmento VI, p. 84.

² "El Angel y el Poeta," Episodio de "El Diablo Mundo," Fragmento Segundo, *ibid.*, p. 239.

³ "La Canción del Pirata," *ibid.*, p. 40.

⁴ "A la Patria," *ibid.*, p. 58.

con matices tan variados de tristeza, desilusión, agresividad, compasión patriotismo,, pesimismo o cinismo, a lo largo de sus obras?

Si existiera a la mano una respuesta sencilla, este trabajo perdería su razón de ser. Si bien es hacedero reducir a un término, "insatisfacción," o "desengaño" el estado anímico que distingue al poeta en un momento determinado, resulta arduo hacer lo mismo al tratar de especificar los móviles que originan esta "filosofía esproncediana de la vida."

Se desprende de las composiciones de Espronceda que el hombre se siente insatisfecho y desengañado a causa de la eterna pugna que fatalmente surge entre él y su medio: el primero tiende a expandirse y el segundo insiste en constreñir y poner trabas, por las buenas o por las malas a las exteriorizaciones anímicas, constructivas o anti-sociales, del individuo. Si esto es la vida del hombre, si este mundo ha de ser un perenne valle de lágrimas, de encontrones, de roces, de violencias y de restricciones, ¿por qué se ha producido este repugnante chocar constante?, ¿quién lo ha originado?, ¿qué debe esperar el hombre en esta o en la otra vida?, ¿cuál es su misión en este mundo? Dejemos que Espronceda mismo conteste estas preguntas y que ponga en evidencia sus ideas filosóficas básicas o "su filosofía del vivir" aunque él nunca tal vez se interrogara de este modo ni coordinara sus pensamientos hasta elaborarse explicaciones de este tipo para suministrarse un esquema que orientase su agitada existencia.

Los biógrafos de Espronceda concuerdan en que desde el momento de venir al mundo, en circunstancias por demás excepcionales, hasta su postración en el lecho de muerte, la vida del poeta fué una cadena interminable de infortunios, traqueteos, fugas, alevosidades y agitación. Tras esta apariencia externa se vislumbra, sin embargo, un resorte interior que cada vez que era pisado lanzaba al poeta por el espacio del desconcierto y lo hacía caer con estrépito quijotesco en el duro y despiadado suelo. De no existir este resorte, Espronceda no habría sido romántico, su vida habría sido diferente o tal vez ordenada, pero para ello, para extirpar de raíz esta fuerza impulsora de su comportamiento contradictorio, robusto, incansable y agresivo, habría sido preciso tronchar su corazón, sede recóndita de sus sentimientos que

fueron siempre lo primario en su temperamento, en su conducta y en su lira.

La disposición emotivo-sentimental del poeta tiende a proyectarse en la estructura social pero choca con las limitaciones que la razón fría y calculadora, no sólo del hombre, tal vez pervertida según Rousseau, sino del cosmos ha establecido para detener los impulsos del corazón. Precipitándose en una situación de esta naturaleza encuentra don Félix de Montemar su perdición, pues persiguiendo en romper en favor de su sensualismo, no necesariamente pasional, las convenciones de su medio se extravía en las regiones del más allá y queda cegado por el fervor amoroso y la alevosía. Espronceda parece deleitarse en el negro destino de don Félix que ha triunfado en su derrota. Idéntico regocijo se observa, por parte del poeta, al admirar a ciertos entes anti-sociales como el pirata, el mendigo, el reo a muerte, el verdugo. Todos ellos no son más que espíritus rebeldes que han reaccionado y surgido triunfantes de las iniquidades e injusticias de esta sociedad humana por demás egoísta, estrecha, incomprensiva y cruel. Sufren dolor, es verdad, pero llevan la satisfacción muy íntima de haberse alzado por encima de los frenos arbitrarios impuestos por la convención. De aquí que el poeta se identifique con ellos y entone su canto de dolorida admiración.

Deseo de independencia y de liberación, reacción contra la estrechez normativa y anhelo indefinido de expresar su afectividad y su antojo son las notas frecuentes en que se gesta el conflicto que deprime o exaspera a Espronceda:

Dictará allí nuestro capricho leyes,
nuestras casas alcázares serán,
los cetros y coronas de los reyes
cual juguete de niños rodarán.⁵

La multiplicidad de circunstancias en que este choque, sociedad o cosmos versus individuo, tiene lugar, da la fisonomía que distingue a la vida poética de Espronceda. Innumerable y varia es la matizada gama de ejemplos que se podría traer a colación para mostrar las reacciones del poeta frente a su problema de inadaptación que es lo medular de "su ideología." Vaya, sin embargo, un botón de muestra que ejemplifica las diversas ideas filosóficas de que

⁵ "El Canto del Cosaco," *ibid.*, p. 41.

Espronceda se había imperceptiblemente poseionado en el transcurso de su azaroso batallar.

En el Canto IV de "El Diablo Mundo" resume la alegoría de Adán con conceptos bastante definidos sobre el triste y fatal origen del hombre y su no menos aflictivo y angustioso porvenir:

Que no es menor misterio este incesante
flujo y reflujo de hombres, que aparecen
con su cuerpo y su espíritu flotante,
que se animan y nacen, hablan, crecen,
se agitan con anhelo delirante,
para siempre después desaparecen,
ignorando de dónde procedieron
y adónde luego para siempre fueron.*

Y en el lapso de tiempo que transcurre entre la aparición humana en la tierra, ignorando la procedencia, e inevitable desaparición del ser, cuyo destino se desconoce, ¿qué sucede como variante de la insatisfacción producida por el eterno chocar del hombre-sentimiento y la sociedad-razón?

Abundante y vigoroso es el sentimiento del poeta cada vez que su afectividad se toca con las muchas adversidades que depara la vida y que en suma pueden sintetizarse en las palabras que a manera de epítome estampó en "A Jarifa en una orgía":

Muere, infeliz: la vida es un tormento
un engaño el placer; no hay en la tierra
paz para ti, ni dicha, ni contento,
sino eterna ambición y eterna guerra.⁷

Al preguntar si todo fué tortura e infelicidad en el arte de Espronceda, se puede responder, sin pecar de demasiado atrevido, que la gran felicidad del poeta no pudo ser otra que la libre expresión de sus afectos en un arte dúctil, plástico y versátil que le proporcionaba a no dudarlo los mejores instantes de esparcimiento espiritual.

En el terreno de lo abstracto se vislumbra que la mayor tragedia del artista ha de ser la de constatar que lo sutil, lo incommensurable y lo bello de su concepción al convertirse en realidad tangible, es decir al caer dentro del inexorable dominio del tiempo y del espacio debe sufrir una deformación fatal e inevitable. El alma del artista constituye un receptáculo que no pudiendo contener el placer y gozo de su propia concepción se desborda, fluye y se proyecta en una creación para que otros, a pesar de las de-

formaciones inherentes al cambio de medio, se puedan solazar en la misma felicidad que inunda al creador.

A base de estos conceptos es posible apreciar las ideas artísticas que abrigaba Espronceda. Bajo el velo lúgubre de un exterior adverso se nota una filosofía de la vida no muy halagadora pero que es, en último término, una cutícula frágil en que se encuentra aprisionado el sentido artístico de Espronceda. ¿Se pretende decir que el poeta se regocijaba en el dolor y el desengaño? No hay razón para una respuesta negativa cuando se considera, *a priori*, que no hay bálsamo más efectivo para el dolor que comunicarlo a otros a fin de que sea compartido por los demás y por medio de la simpatía se aminore su intensidad y se alivie su peso abrumador. Tal vez haya fanfarronería ocasional en el poeta, aunque tampoco es improbable que ello fuera un producto de sus necesidades anímicas.

Es así como Espronceda utiliza el arte poético primariamente como válvula de escape de su carga poética como artista y de su dolor como medio curativo del dolor humano que lo consumía. Su arte es un endoso de sensibilidad y de penas para que sus semejantes le conozcan en la integridad de creador y en la amargura y desengaño del hombre romántico que en él existían. Si tras la negra apariencia de la realidad formal se deja de ver esta exteriorización socio-anímica de tanto valor para el poeta y el hombre de mundo, se habrá errado en la justa apreciación de lo que el arte significa para Espronceda.

¿Qué importa si provoca
mi voz la befa de almas viles?
¿Morir qué importa en tan gloriosa lucha?
¿Qué importa, envidia, que tu diente afiles?
Yo cantaré: la humanidad me escucha.⁸

Pero el poeta reconoce que al dar curso a sus sentimientos no posee los medios adecuados, aunque se vea ineludiblemente que su expresión y estilo no son tan indeseables como él cree:

.....
contaré el cuento con mi estilo rudo
al bronco son de mi cansada lira.⁹

* "El Diablo Mundo," Canto IV, *ibid.*, p. 182.

⁷ "A Jarifa en una Orgía," *ibid.*, p. 28.

⁸ "A la Traslación de las Cenizas de Napoleón," *ibid.*, p. 60.

⁹ "El Diablo Mundo," Canto IV, *ibid.*, p. 182.

Sin embargo, no permitirá que estas limitaciones, difíciles de reducir como son, den una impresión falsa o equivocada de la sinceridad de su inspiración:

Mas yo, como escritor muy concienzudo
incapaz de forjar una mentira. . . .¹⁰

Juzgada ahora desde la distancia y bajo la distancia y bajo la perspectiva que permite apreciar la obra en su conjunto, las composiciones de Espronceda se semejan al estallido de un explosivo, aparentemente único pero en realidad múltiple. La vena romántica del poeta obedece a los impulsos del sentimiento y de la emoción más que al esfuerzo sostenido y controlado de la razón. Dejándose llevar por este flujo y reflujo de su espíritu apasionado, no pasional, pero sí turbulento y agresivo, Espronceda rompe cauces con intensidad diversa y con desigualdad chocante, que más de un crítico le ha imputado como defecto, pero muy en conformidad con su idea de que el arte poético es desbordamiento del corazón y como tal a veces fino y pulido pero otras, avasallador y heterogéneo en su forma.

¡Oh! En el dolor eterno que me inspira,
el pueblo en torno avergonzado calle,
y estallando las cuerdas de mi lira,
roto también mi corazón estalle.¹¹

Precisamente porque su corazón se ha roto, su lira ha estallado con el fogonazo que significa la figura de don Félix de Montemar, encarnación del propio Espronceda, que lleva su anhelo de halagar los sentidos hasta exteriorizarlos en el arrojo, el escepticismo y la glasefemia. ¿Es posible pedirle a un espíritu encendido y ardiendo en la llama de la pasión, cualquiera que ella sea, la parsimonia, el método, el recato y el control que pudieran exigírseles al arte de Espronceda en su visión donjuanesca del 'El Estudiante de Salamanca,' por ejemplo, o en la alegoría de "El Diablo Mundo"? El hacerlo

sería desvirtuar la esencia misma de la concepción artística y el poeta no podría ni debería prestarse a semejante arbitrariedad. Tampoco hay incongruencia en los cuadros impresionistas de "El Diablo Mundo" porque si la concepción es reflejo de lo alegórico que distingue a la humanidad, está en perfecta consonancia con las ideas que Espronceda tiene de las proyecciones sociales y cósmicas de la existencia. El arte de este poeta es, en "El Diablo Mundo," fiel reflejo de sus sentimientos acerca de la ubicación cósmica del hombre expresados en un ritmo desordenado del corazón en que el ser, como Adán, nace frente a un vacío al cual cae imperceptiblemente, por el engaño, sin saber el lugar de su propio desenlace y epílogo:

Y él allá va, y ardiente se abalanza,
cayendo despeñado, y tropezando,
a merced de su propia fantasía,
tras la engañosa estrella que lo guía.¹²

El desbordamiento poético y afectivo, expresado como venga, pero por lo general con gran valor estético, aparece en forma evidente y como un brindis que la sensibilidad del poeta hace al lector en casi la mayoría de sus poemas, exceptuando como es natural "El Pelayo." No es posible entrar en el análisis particular de los diversos poemas, el cual se encuentra en cualquier manual, pero es de insistir en el denominador común con que se tropieza a lo largo de la producción total. Hay en el fondo de la poética esproncediana un residuo estético-filosófico precioso que se ha tratado de desentrañar en estas líneas y del que todavía poco o nada se había dicho.

HOMERO CASTILLO

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¹⁰ "El Diablo Mundo," Canto IV, *ibid.*, p. 182.

¹¹ "Dos de Mayo," *ibid.*, p. 63.

¹² "El Diablo Mundo," Canto V, Cuadro I, *ibid.*, p. 207.

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The Berlitz Method

IT WAS about 75 years ago that progressive language teachers revolted against the then prevailing ways of teaching foreign languages—ways that were based on the methods of teaching Latin and ancient Greek. The Berlitz Method, since its inception, has been part of that revolt.

Although it is a well-rounded method, it is only vaguely known to foreign language teachers in this country. This is all the more regrettable as the Berlitz Method is an American method *par excellence*, conceived in Providence, Rhode Island, and developed by Americans of European extraction who welcomed the American atmosphere of freedom in which they were able to liberate themselves from the staid traditions of Old World formalism. The Berlitz Method represents the major American contribution to the development of the direct method in perfect unison with the *Reform Methode* conceived in Germany, *la Méthode Directe* as introduced by P. Passy in France, and F. Gouin's psychological method. As an integrated system of teaching, it goes much farther than the natural method of G. Hennessey and L. Sauveur, two great reformers in their own right.

There is more than one reason for the fact that it is very difficult for someone not associated with the Berlitz Schools to obtain a clear picture of the various aspects of the Berlitz Method. Maximilian D. Berlitz (1852–1921) never cared to give a detailed description of his method to the larger public. He was content to improve upon it all through his life, and to found new branches of his school system.* This was perfectly in line with his conviction that rules and theories should not be discussed but applied and practiced. The principles of his "conversational" method have been and are being handed down through oral tradition. There has always been leeway for change and improvement. The method has thus never become a rigid system forbidding adaptation to changing conditions. Every teacher in every les-

son is working *with*, and at the same time *at*, the method.

The new emphasis on the speaking objective, together with the growing interest in the aural-oral approach may account for the academic attention recently given to the Berlitz Method. However, as a consequence of M. D. Berlitz's silence, and the private character of the Berlitz School system, it is not generally realized that the Berlitz Method is a complete system which provides specific answers to all the needs of the teacher in his classroom work, once the teaching aim has been established. It may, therefore, be appropriate for the Berlitz Schools to participate today, after 76 years of teaching and methodological development, in the evaluation of their own method, and to contribute in this manner to the academic rediscovery of the Berlitz Method in this country.

OBJECTIVES

The objective of the Berlitz Method is the fourfold aim of understanding, speaking, reading, and writing, with emphasis on speaking from the very beginning. In other words, the primary objective of the method is *oral communication*, going hand in hand with aural comprehension; its secondary objectives are reading and writing. An active (speaking) knowledge is considered superior to, and more difficult to attain than, a passive (reading) knowledge. Hence the attention of the method is centered on speaking from the very start.

Reading, within the limits of the student's active vocabulary, will almost take care of itself (that is, unless the graphic reproduction of the language offers difficulties, by using alphabets or other symbols with which the student is not

* Today there are Berlitz Schools in 22 different countries: 25 in the United States, 13 in France, 12 in Italy, 8 in Spain, 7 in Switzerland, etc. Model schools are in Paris, London, and New York. The Method Research Department in New York is headed by Charles F. Berlitz, grandson of the founder.

familiar). Unfortunately, the opposite is not true; even a perfect reading ability does not necessarily result in a speaking ability of even the most modest degree.

The Berlitz Method is concerned primarily with the linguistic, and not the cultural, aspects of foreign language teaching; the method has developed teaching techniques solely to serve the linguistic objectives. As a method designed to impart linguistic skills it does not set up an essential content objective, like the cultural aim, but it can be adapted to serve this or any other content aim, be it literary, military or vocational in character.

The cultural, like any other content aim, has at least one major linguistic implication: vocabulary selection. This linguistic aspect is very important for the methodological planning of a language course, and it receives due attention in the Berlitz Method, as will be shown at once.

As a direct teaching technique, the Berlitz Method pursues the ultimate aim of making the student think in the new language. It is, in fact, this ultimate goal which determines the order of, and the relative emphasis on, single objectives: understanding and speaking before reading and writing. Here is the clue to the general principles of the method, as well as to the various techniques of classroom procedure. The Berlitz Method endeavors to train the student to accept the simplification of thought and expression unavoidable whenever a language other than the vernacular is used.

The Berlitz Method requires the employment of native instructors, i.e. of instructors who teach their native language only. Quite naturally, therefore, much factual information about the teacher's country of origin will be passed on to the student, whatever the content objective of the course may be.

In the interest of conceptual clarity, it appears to be necessary to differentiate to a certain extent between the Berlitz Method as such and the work done at the Berlitz Schools.

VOCABULARY SELECTION

Under the specific conditions of a private language school attended by many adult students who study a language for practical purposes, M. D. Berlitz developed a basic course, to be taught in his schools, and established as

its main objective the ability to communicate orally with natives. Once this main objective had been set up, M. D. Berlitz asked himself the more specific question: *Who* is going to communicate with *whom*? He imagined the following two protagonists in those basic life situations which necessitate oral communication with natives:

- a) The traveler in a foreign country—tourist, soldier, salesman, or whatever his capacity may be;
- b) The native who, in his own country, wishes to use the foreign idiom in his contacts with foreigners—i.e. as a customs official, hotel keeper or employee, waiter, airline employee, etc., etc.

The linguistic needs of these two groups are somewhat different. A person *living* abroad will, above all, need a broader and more general knowledge of the language, while a person at home in touch with foreigners may manage with a narrower and more specific knowledge, depending upon the nature of his contacts with foreigners.

The "traveler" and his needs were accepted as a guide for the content of the general introductory course. In considering the needs of a traveler, the Berlitz Schools are in fact determining the scope of their elementary courses—the selection of vocabulary as well as of grammatical phenomena; both, words and grammar, attuned to the gradual growth of the student's ability to express himself orally.

By focussing his attention upon the "traveler," and the various daily situations in which he finds himself, M. D. Berlitz was probably the first to develop a beginner's course around a *planned* selected vocabulary. Before word-frequency studies and frequency lists became available, M. D. Berlitz weighed every single word according to its value for the purpose of the course. Thus, he came very close to elaborating a *conversational* word-frequency list, long before the first frequency count, based on *printed* material, was published. Consequently, Berlitz primers contain roughly 1500 words, divided into two main groups:

- a) A basic general vocabulary of primary life-importance, consisting of about 850 to 900 words;

- b) A slightly less general and more technical vocabulary, to serve the more specific needs of the traveler (500 to 600 words).

The former group contains a minimum vocabulary indispensable for oral expression of elementary life situations; both groups combined are sufficient to build around them an amazingly complete, though simple, system of *linguistic expression*, to permit communication of daily life and traveling experiences. Even so, of the 500 words and 30 idioms contained in P. Hagboldt's "Allerlei," only 37 words and 4 idioms are not contained in the Berlitz "Erstes Buch." Certain cognates in Hagboldt's text are not employed in the Berlitz book, since the Berlitz Method, as such, shuns any reference to the student's vernacular. Cognates, however, do find their way into Berlitz classroom work, whether they are on the approved vocabulary selection or not.

The Berlitz minimum scale of 1500 words centers around the following topical situations:

Parts of the room	Food and beverages
Furniture	Table utensils
Reading and writing material	Time
Garments	Substances
Colors	Relation and comparison
Dimension and shape, quality	Daily life routine
Persons (nouns, personal and indefinite pronouns)	Work
Position and movement (verbs and prepositions)	Meals
Questions (interrogatives)	Housing, heating, and lighting
Quantity (numbers and adverbs)	Weather
Possession	Dressing, changing, visiting
Parts of the body	Past and future
Instrumentality	Animals
Flowers	The five senses, health
	Actions of the mind
	Traveling (five lessons)
	Plants, country and city
	Family, age

Verbs make up about 10 per cent of this minimum word list. Because of the highly representative character of verbs for a conversational frequency scale, we list the first 40 in the order in which they are introduced.

to be, to stand, to lie, to sit, to take, to put, to open, to close, to go, to come, to bring, to carry, to do, to count, to cost, to write, to read, to speak, to begin, to end, to pronounce, to spell, to ask, to answer, to have, to sit down, to get up, to go out, to enter, to remain, to give, to get, to receive, to tell,

to walk, to cut, to see, to hear, to smell, to eat, to drink

These verbs have a highly communicative value, and they can all be easily explained without translation.

DIRECT PRINCIPLE

Every language teacher knows that it is one thing to use the direct principle of explaining and drilling vocabulary or grammar *occasionally*, and that it is quite another thing to adhere to this approach one hundred per cent, despite difficulties which sooner or later are encountered. We all agree that if the speaking objective is accepted as one of the aims, if not the primary aim, of foreign language teaching, the exclusive use of the foreign language is the ideal solution in working toward that objective. This is educationally sound, and psychologically justified; we learn to do things by doing them; we learn to speak French by speaking French, not by speaking *about* French (as, for instance about its grammatical difficulties) in English. We can develop new speech habits only by continuous practice in the new language, not by consciously applying rules, nor by translation. While a course in "conversation" is still considered by many the crowning achievement, the final *part* of instruction, the Berlitz Method as a direct method makes of "conversation" its very method of instruction. Conversation in the sense of oral drill from the very outset; oral exercises and practice, that gain more and more freedom of movement within a gradually widening range of expression.

M. D. Berlitz felt that the closer the identity between method and objective, between didactic devices and the goal they are designed to serve, the more satisfactory the process of instruction. Ideal is the method which, in every part of its procedure, directly serves the established teaching objective, where the means to an end are in themselves a function of the end, where the way and the goal are so fused together as to be inseparable. Or, in terms of a whole philosophy of life, where the way *is* the aim. *Der Weg ist das Ziel*.

A direct method is satisfactory only if it allows us to teach all phases of a language, including the initial stage, without having to compromise the direct principle in the interests

of clarity. Thus, it should be possible to teach English or Latvian to a Hungarian or a Japanese by a smooth system of instruction, without reference to the student's native tongue. The teacher needs a thoroughly systematic procedure to build up a language in itself, with all necessary attention given to every detail of classroom procedure. The Berlitz Method is an answer to this need.

ORGANIZING PRINCIPLE

The vocabulary selected for the general Berlitz course as outlined above, or the vocabulary selected for any special Berlitz course (e.g. a course for the flying personnel of U.S. airlines, or a course for men supervising native labor in an Asiatic country)—in fact, any vocabulary selected for speech purposes—has to be arranged, and perhaps supplemented, in an order which makes direct explanation easiest.

The point of time assigned for the introduction of a certain word is of minor significance when such a word can be understood through direct observation of objects, pictures, charts, realia, teacher's actions. But the point at which a new word is to be introduced cannot be left to chance when the word has to be explained through an association of ideas, and expressed through the vocabulary already learned. I can hardly explain the verb "to cut" unless my students know the word for "knife" or "scissors." I need at least one, possibly several, couples of nouns to explain a verb like "to contain." "This box contains sixty pencils." "A year contains 365 days."

These are simple examples to illustrate one of the organizing principles of the Berlitz Method—the "principle of the methodically appropriate sequence," applied to the gradual introduction of a pre-selected vocabulary. In adhering to it, the instructor can focus his explanatory skill upon one new word at a time. The explanation, clear though it must be, is therefore always short, and consumes little time.

In order to guarantee a smooth working of the direct principle in vocabulary explanation as well as in vocabulary drill, the vocabulary selected with regard to the specific objective of the course must be arranged and introduced in such a sequence that:

- a) The explanation of meaning can be easily

achieved through *Anschauung*, or the employment of words previously assimilated by the student; and

- b) Each new word can be drilled sufficiently for assimilation by means of words (and constructions) studied before.

The principle of the methodically correct sequence is applied not only to the introduction of new words, but also to the "breaking down" of grammar and the order in which it is introduced. Gradual grammatical growth is dealt with in the same way as gradual vocabulary development, logically, of course. But precisely herein lies the quality of the Berlitz Method, which disregards everything dear to the grammar schools, grammar systems, and grammarians of the past several centuries.

The Berlitz Method subordinates the introduction of *grammar* to its over-all aim—that of gradually developing the student's range of oral expression. Grammar is indeed developed systematically; however, the course is not, and cannot be, organized along formally complete grammatical patterns, declension and conjugation tables, verb paradigms, etc. The direct principle of teaching and the analytical principle of grammatical description (formal grammar) do not agree. Teaching language skills by the direct approach is a synthetic process—the gradual build-up of a new language. Grammar in the traditional sense actually presupposes the whole language as such, and then breaks it down into a more or less complete system of grammatical phenomena. Formal grammar has its place (and serves broader educational values) in analyzing the student's mother tongue, teaching the classical languages, coordinating grammatical facts at an advanced stage in the learning of a modern foreign language. But formal grammar has definitely no place during the initial stages of a course designed to lead immediately to a speaking ability (or, indeed, even a mere reading ability). Formal grammar is the complete analysis of a language; it is descriptive in character; it is the scientific theory of a language. However, it is not the logical and practical way to acquire language skills (speaking or reading).

Therefore, the Berlitz Method introduces points of grammatical relevance when they serve the gradual growth of the range of oral

expression. These grammatical items are kept as small as possible, only one case at a time, perhaps only one gender of one case at a time. They receive individual attention, and are introduced at a time when the linguistic prerequisites for their illustration and drill have already been assimilated. Grammatical key examples do not contain any new vocabulary, so their explanatory value is not impaired. In teaching German declensions, for example, Berlitz never follows vertical patterns, but introduces one case at a time: first the nominative, naturally accompanied by some forms of the verb "to be"; then the dative, after prepositions indicating location—at first after the verb "to be," then supplemented by *liegen, stehen, sitzen*. In a subsequent lesson, transitive verbs (to take, to put, to open, to close) can be introduced, and drilled with feminine and neuter nouns, before passing on to the accusative *den* of the masculine gender. Only a little later, the dative drill reappears after verbs like *geben, sagen, schreiben*, etc.

In this way, the sentence is gradually developed, the principle of "single emphasis" is fully applied. The skeleton of sentence structure grows together with the meat of vocabulary; two parallel tasks blend, alternately serving the over-all objective—to increase the ability to communicate, an organic growth of the whole language.

Verbs are not introduced according to grammatical classifications, as regular verbs first (possibly divided by conjugations, as in the Romance languages), then irregular verbs, etc. They are given *when needed* in the interests of a gradual widening of the range of expressions. Then and there irregular forms receive the necessary drill attention. Nor are the verbs introduced by complete (vertical) conjugation patterns. In point of tenses, the present is used exclusively for some time. The most useful past tense or tenses follow—in German the *Perfektum* (present perfect) only, the *Plusquamperfektum* and *Imperfektum* following much later; in French, the *passé indéfini* (*passé défini* and *imparfait* following much later). In Spanish, the *pretérito indefinido* and the *pretérito compuesto* are taught first, the *imperfecto* following later. Each tense, again (e.g. the present tense), is not approached as a formally complete gram-

matical unit (first, second, and third persons of the singular, first, second, and third persons of the plural), a procedure which would compel the instructor to explain to a beginner the confusing fact that the second person singular in English (you) is replaced by what grammatically turns out to be the third person singular in Spanish and Italian, the second person plural in French and the third person plural in German. By not accepting the complete conjugational pattern as the *eo ipso* better teaching device, Berlitz finds it more satisfactory to introduce the third person first, and to drill this verb form alone by the easiest type of question—self-answering ones:

Ist das Buch grün? Ja, das Buch ist grün.

As the next step, those verb forms are introduced concurrently which fulfill the functions of the first and second persons singular: I-you, *ich-Sie, je-vous, yo-Ud., io-Lei*, in the conjugation pattern.

At a somewhat later stage, after having introduced numerals and the plurals of some nouns, the plurals of the above verb-form couples will be given: we-you, *wir-Sie, nous-vous, nosotros-Uds., noi-Loro*. This example may show that by replacing the traditional grammatical pattern by a more natural order derived from the needs of conversation, a considerable amount of theoretical explanation becomes superfluous. Thus, the student is not artificially made grammar-conscious; while the exclusive use of the foreign language tends at the same time to prevent the student from being vernacular-conscious, conditions are created which are at least not antagonistic to the production of desirable speaking habits and the assimilation of new thought patterns.

At a much more advanced stage, and with students who are familiar with grammatical patterns, verb forms will be summarized and reviewed by means of the conjugational pattern; at a stage, that is, where grammar can be discussed in the new language. Only then can a healthy integration of the two contrasting methods be achieved. Deducing from the basic Berlitz course the principles of the Berlitz Method, we should like to summarize that:

- 1) The whole linguistic material is broken down into the smallest possible units, both of grammar and vocabulary.

- 2) Each unit or point is explained and at once drilled until absorbed by the student.
- 3) The gradual growth of the sentence as commonly used in everyday life situations determines the selection of grammatically relevant points for introduction and drill.
- 4) The selection of the vocabulary is determined by the same criterion.
- 5) The sequence in which new words and new grammatical phenomena are introduced is so arranged that explanation takes a minimum of time and effort, and is easily achieved without reference to the student's mother tongue.

KEY EXAMPLES FOR GRADUAL SENTENCE DEVELOPMENT

Here are a few key examples for development of sentence structure, parallel to which the first 400 words are introduced:

<i>Grammar Content</i>	<i>Key Sentences</i>	<i>Interrogative</i>
Nominative	<i>Das ist der Bleistift.</i>	<i>Was?</i>
Predicate Adjective	<i>Der Bleistift ist gelb.</i>	<i>Wie?</i>
Personal Pronoun	<i>Er ist gelb.</i>	
Indefinite Article	<i>Das ist ein Herr.</i>	<i>Wer?</i>
I am—you are	<i>Das ist Herr Müller.</i> <i>Ich bin Herr X., ich bin der Lehrer;</i> <i>Sie sind Frau Y.</i>	<i>Wer?</i>
Dative	<i>Der Bleistift ist (liegt) auf dem Tisch. Ich bin auf dem Stuhl.</i>	<i>Wo?</i>
Accusative	<i>Der Lehrer nimmt das Buch.</i> <i>Der Lehrer nimmt den Bleistift.</i>	<i>Was nimmt?</i>
Plural of nouns; idiom: "There is"	<i>Das sind zwei Bleistifte.</i>	<i>Wieviel?</i>
Accusative of the indefinite article; first person plural.	<i>Es ist ein Bleistift auf dem Tisch.</i> <i>Ich habe einen (keinen) Bleistift.</i> <i>Wir haben einen (keinen) Bleistift.</i>	
Genitive	<i>Das ist der Bleistift des Lehrers.</i>	<i>Wessen?</i>

The few examples given above illustrate the growth of sentences, step by step, very gradually enlarging the ability to express thought, while the instructor seemingly jumps from one bit of grammatical information to another.

If this procedure can be followed for a rather highly inflected language like German, it is of course easier to apply in the initial stages of teaching the Romance languages or English. Modifications are necessary for each language. but there is no language which cannot be satisfactorily built up in this way, around a smaller or larger number of words, a more general or a more specific vocabulary. Oriental languages

have been found to be especially adaptable to the Berlitz Method and, because of their complete lack of relation to western languages, constitute a good proof of the method's possibility to be changed easily to fit different conditions.

After limited (or more comprehensive) linguistic material—vocabulary, grammar—has thus been arranged in the best possible sequence to guarantee easy explanation, specific *teaching devices* are used for explanatory and drill purposes. Visual aids are continuously drawn upon for direct observation, to arrive at object-word associations. Verbs and feelings are acted out by the teacher, or again observed in pictures. Word groups are assembled for easier retention, around such units of thought as the topical situations listed above, or more comprehensive logical units such as orientation in time, orientation in space, climate, etc. Both explanation

and retention are facilitated by developing "series" of sentences:

I go to the door, I open the door, the door is open, I close the door, the door is closed.

Word couples with opposite meanings, good-bad, pleasant-unpleasant, are introduced together:

This pencil does not write well, it writes badly.

The approach via the negative provides for a clearer explanation, and leads more rapidly to a correct understanding of the explanation. Suppose a student knows the word for "num-

ber," and I want to explain "letter of the alphabet." Instead of defining "A" as a letter, "B" as a letter, etc., it might be preferable to ask: Is 3 a number? (Review question for the word "number"), and to continue with: Is "A" a number? The student replies: No, it is not a number. Teacher: It is a letter. "B" is a letter. "C" is a letter.

Whenever direct observation is impossible, simple *associations of ideas* are used. However, when the explanation would become too lengthy and complicated, the introduction of the word in question is considered untimely. The premature presentation of a new word or idiom must be avoided, otherwise the advantage of the direct approach becomes a weakness.

"Grammar" explanation and drill is frequently reduced to "vocabulary" explanation and drill. The mystery language of grammatical terms has no place in a beginners' course under ordinary conditions. "Rules," or rather grammatical facts, are illustrated by striking examples only, and then drilled by applying the rule rather than formulating it. The student has learned *el libro, la pluma*; he is familiar with colors (*rojo, negro*, etc.). He has no trouble in saying: *El libro es rojo*, and he is ready to accept, if not yet fully to understand, such a key example of grammatical relevance as *La pluma es roja*. He will now have to use *roja* (and *blanca* and *negra*) in any number of sentences with feminine nouns. Clear-cut key sentences demonstrate a grammatical point, which is then drilled through as many similar sentences with otherwise well-known material until the point in question has been absorbed and a correct new speech habit is established. In such cases, *Sprachgefühl* is developed through a kind of sound analogy.

Or compare the rather simple rules about German word order in subordinate clauses with the hopeless struggle of a student applying these rules, particularly a student who doesn't recognize a subordinate clause anyway. Here again, speech habits can be developed through many applications of the word-order rules in *dass, weil, or wenn* sentences. Hence, Berlitz teaches functional grammar by continued practice and repetition.

DRILL DEVICES

As a conversational method, Berlitz keeps questions and answers in the foreground of all classroom work. This emphasis has led to an analysis of questions from the view point of the student's difficulty in supplying an answer. A system of *graded questions* has been developed, which allows the instructor to increase gradually the active contribution in word and thought by the student, in the classroom game of question and answer.

It is perhaps not generally realized to what extent drill and explanation can be profitably transformed into teacher-student dialogue. Here we have Socrates popping up again on the elementary level of foreign language instruction! At the top of the list of graded questions are:

1. Self-answering or elliptical questions. They are the easiest, and an excellent device for drilling pronunciation, vocabulary, and points of grammatical relevance. They have nothing much to do with "conversation," but they provide a simple means for speech drill and still avoid actual parroting of sentences. They should be employed immediately after explaining a new point. Genuine elliptical sentences are those where:
 - a) Intonation alone distinguishes the answer from the question: *Andiamo a scuola? Sì, andiamo a scuola. ¿Está hablando? Sí, está hablando.*
 - b) The word order has to be rearranged: *Gehen wir in die Schule? Ja, wir gehen in die Schule. Sommes-nous à l'école? Oui, nous sommes à l'école.*
2. Semi-elliptical questions, which require more complicated interrogatory circumlocution not to be repeated in the reply: *Est-ce qu'il prend son livre? Oui, il prend son livre. Do we take our books? Yes, we take our books.* When first used, these interrogative constructions cannot, and need not, be explained to the student. They are, for the time being, used by the instructor only, and their character as questions becomes quite evident by the intonation given them, and/or by the situation in which they are used.

3. Elliptical and semi-elliptical questions requiring negative answers: *Vanno a scuola? No, non vanno a scuola.*

Elliptical and semi-elliptical questions are third-person questions, singular and plural, and sometimes first-person plural questions. Students are of course trained to reply in complete sentences, always. Berlitz does not take "yes" or "no" for an answer. The ideal Berlitz instructor induces the student to do at least 50 per cent of the talking.

4. Questions and answers requiring a change of subject: *Gehen Sie jetzt nach Hause? Ja, wir gehen jetzt nach Hause;* followed up by negative answers: *Nein, wir gehen jetzt nicht nach Hause.*
5. Questions and answers requiring a change of the subject and the verb form: *Etes-vous Mme Dubois? Oui, je suis Mme Dubois;* and again followed up by negative answers: *Non, je ne suis pas Mme Dubois.*
6. Supplementary questions: Here the student is supposed to complete the sentence by supplying one of its principal parts. All these questions employ interrogative pronouns, adjectives, or adverbs:
- Third-person supplementary questions: Pronoun: *Was ist das? Das ist der Tisch.* Adjective: *Wie ist er? Er ist gelb.* Adverb: *Wo steht er? Er steht auf dem Boden.*
 - First- and second-person supplementary questions: *Wer sind Sie? Ich bin der Lehrer. Wann kommen Sie wieder? Ich komme um drei Uhr wieder.*

7. Secondary clause questions: *En quel cas (quand) pouvez-vous revenir? Je peux revenir si je ne dois pas travailler. Pourquoi venez-vous ici? Je viens ici parce que je veux parler français. Que dit-il? Il dit qu'il ne comprend pas.*

8. Main clause questions: A complete, if short, statement is required of the student: *¿Qué hace Ud.? Yo me levanto.*

9. Topical questions: *Que savez-vous de Paris?*

Answers may differ from questions in: intonation only; word order only; containing a negative; their respective subjects; replacing nouns by pronouns; replacing one person by another; their subjects and verb forms; sup-

plying a principal part of the sentence—subject, predicate, object; supplying a subordinate clause; elaborating a completely different sentence.

Being conscious of this system of graded questions, an instructor has an excellent means of drilling one small point after another, gradually increasing the difficulty of his questions, and keeping the flow of dialogue smooth and lively.

Another useful device of the Berlitz Method consists of a combination of drill and explanation, wherein the student, while answering questions he understands, is led to a point where a new word is needed. At this point exactly the word is given, and then used in some drill questions. Rather than paraphrasing, the instructor dissolves his explanations into questions. Teacher monologue is in this way transformed into teacher-student dialogue. This paraphrastic device can be successfully employed in the introduction of interrogatives.

At a certain stage, the student knows some objects, the words for "on" and/or "in," but does not yet know the interrogative "where":

Teacher: (placing book on table): *Le livre est-il sur la chaise?*

Student: *Non, le livre n'est pas sur la chaise.*

Teacher: *Le livre est-il sur le plancher?*

Student: *Non, le livre n'est pas sur le plancher.*

Teacher: *Où est le livre?*

Student: *Le livre est sur la table.*

If a certain speed is maintained, this device will work very well. A similar procedure can be followed in introducing "can":

Teacher: *¿Toque Ud. la mesa, por favor!*

Student: (Complies)

Teacher: *¿Qué hace Ud.?*

Student: *Yo toco la mesa.*

Teacher: *¿Toque Ud. la pared, por favor!*

Student: (Complies)

Teacher: *¿Qué hace Ud.?*

Student: *Yo toco la pared.*

Teacher: *¿Toque Ud. el techo!*

Student: (Looks at ceiling and wants to say "I cannot")

Teacher: (Supplies the word): *Ud. no puede . . . and goes on to explain, El profesor no puede tocar el techo.*

Having set forth the organizing principles and some of the explanatory and drill devices of the Berlitz Method, we may further illustrate classroom procedure by outlining a portion of the first lesson in French:

Teacher (entering classroom, smiling, bowing): *Bonjour, Mesdemoiselles.* (picks up handbag): *Le sac—le sac—le sac.*

First Student: *Le sac.*

Second Student: *Le sac.*

Third Student: *Le sac.*

Teacher (pointing to a box on the table): *La boîte—la boîte—la boîte.*

First Student: *La boîte.*

Second Student: *La boîte.*

Third Student: *La boîte.*

Teacher (pointing to the two objects): *Le sac—la boîte.*

First Student: *Le sac—la boîte.*

Second Student: *Le sac—la boîte.*

Third Student: *Le sac—la boîte.*

Teacher: (pointing to a key): *La clé.*

First Student: *La clé.*

Second Student: *La clé.*

Third Student: *La clé.*

Teacher (points to objects, changing order):

First Student: *Le sac—la boîte—la clé.*

Second Student: *La clé—la boîte—le sac.*

Third student: *La boîte—la clé—le sac.*

Teacher (pointing to handbag): *Est-ce la boîte?* (Emphatically): *Non.* (pointing to box): *Est-ce la clé?*

First Student: *Non.*

Teacher (pointing to key): *Est-ce la boîte?*

Second Student: *Non.*

Teacher (pointing to a book): *Est-ce la clé?*

Third Student: *Non.*

Teacher (pointing to key): *Est-ce la clé?* (Emphatically): *Oui.*

Teacher (repeating): *Est-ce la clé?*

First Student: *Oui.*

Teacher (pointing to box): *Est-ce la boîte?*

Second Student: *Oui.*

Teacher (pointing to bag): *Est-ce le sac?*

Third Student: *Oui.*

Teacher (pointing to bag): *Est-ce la boîte?*

First Student: *Non.*

Teacher (pointing to box): *Est-ce la boîte?*

Second Student: *Oui.*

Teacher (pointing to key): *Est-ce la boîte?*

Third Student: *Non.*

Teacher (pointing to key): *Est-ce la clé?*

First Student: *Oui.*

In the same way are introduced and drilled *le papier*, *la plume*, and *la table*.

Teacher: (pointing to table): *Est-ce la table?*

First Student: *Oui.*

Teacher (completing): *Oui, c'est la table.*

Teacher: *Est-ce la sac?*

Second Student: *Oui.*

Teacher (completing): *Oui, c'est le sac.*

Teacher: *Est-ce la boîte?*

Third Student: *Oui.*

Teacher (completing): *Oui, c'est la boîte.*

Teacher: *Est-ce la boîte?*

First Student: *Oui, c'est la boîte.*

Teacher: *Est-ce la clé?*

Second Student: *Oui, c'est la clé.*

Teacher: *Est-ce la plume?*

Third Student: *Oui, c'est la plume.*

Teacher (pointing to box): *Est-ce la plume?*

First Student: *Non.*

Teacher: *Non, ce n'est pas la plume.*

Teacher: (pointing to the pen): *Est-ce le papier?*

Second Student: *Non.*

Teacher: *Non, ce n'est pas le papier.*

Teacher (pointing to the table): *Est-ce le papier?*

Third Student: *Non, ce n'est pas le papier.*

Teacher (pointing to the paper): *Est-ce la table?*

First Student: *Non, ce n'est pas la table.*

Teacher (pointing to the table): *Est-ce la table?*

Second Student: *Oui, c'est la table.*

Teacher (pointing to the table): *Est-ce la porte?*

Third Student: *Non, ce n'est pas la porte.*

Teacher: (pointing to the table): *Est-ce la boîte?*

First Student: *Non, ce n'est pas la boîte.*

Teacher (pointing to the table): *Est-ce le sac?*

Second Student: *Non, ce n'est pas le sac.*

Teacher (pointing to the table): *Est-ce le papier?*

Third Student: *Non, ce n'est pas le papier.*

Teacher (pointing to the table): *Qu'est-ce que c'est?*

First Student: *La table. C'est la table.*

Teacher (using color chart): *Rouge, bleu, jaune.*

First Student: *Rouge, bleu, jaune.*

Second Student: *Rouge, bleu, jaune.*

Third Student: *Rouge, bleu, jaune.*

Teacher (putting bag and paper on colors):

Le sac est rouge. Le papier est bleu.

Teacher (just points):

First Student: *Le papier est bleu.*

Second Student: *Le sac est rouge.*

Third Student: *La table est jaune.*

First Student: *La porte est jaune.*

Second Student: *La plume est rouge.*

Teacher: *La plume est-elle rouge?*

Third Student: *Oui, la plume est rouge.*

Teacher: *La porte est elle jaune?*

First Student: *Oui, la porte est jaune.*

Teacher: *La porte est-elle rouge?*

Second Student: *Non.*

Teacher: *Non, la porte n'est pas rouge.*

Teacher: *La porte est-elle bleue?*

Third Student: *Non, la porte n'est pas bleue.*

Teacher: *La papier est-il bleu?*

First Student: *Oui, le papier est bleu.*

Teacher: *Le papier est-il rouge?*

Second Student: *Non, le papier n'est pas rouge.*

Teacher: *Le sac est-il rouge?*

Third Student: *Oui, le sac est rouge.*

Teacher: *Le sac est-il bleu?*

First Student: *Non, le sac n'est pas bleu.*

Teacher: *Le sac est-il jaune?*

Second Student: *Non, le sac n'est pas jaune.*

Teacher: *De quelle couleur est le sac?*

Third Student: *Le sac est rouge.*

At least three more objects and three more colors are introduced and drilled in the same way.

What has been accomplished in this lesson? First of all, a start has been made without reference to the student's mother tongue. About 25 words have been understood, and have been almost absorbed by the students. Work on pronunciation and the development of new speech habits has been begun. At the beginning of the course, no writing or reading is done for several (2 to 6) more hours of instruction. Students in a Berlitz school do not even receive their textbooks during this first teaching stage.

Pronunciation is taught as an imitative process. The student reproduces the words and small sentences which he hears; phonetic elements like sounds, stresses, pitch, and intona-

tion are taught as parts of the larger unit. Recording machines may be used at this time with students who do not hear correctly. The Berlitz Method does not employ phonetic symbols, and the conventional spelling is not yet given, lest the student attach to the letters the pronunciation of the vernacular. It is felt that the first few lessons are decisive for the acquisition of good pronunciation.

After completion of this exclusively aural-oral introduction, which lasts for about six hours, reading is initiated. However, students are not considered ready to read unless they have gained an acceptable pronunciation and have absorbed every single word contained in the first lesson in the book. In other words, pronunciation habits must be so well established that even a very unphonetic orthography will not shake them. Only then will there be no need to give the beginner those 50-odd rules which express the relationship between French spelling and pronunciation; at a slightly more advanced stage, students would not find it very difficult to arrive at their own generalizations, but here again it is believed that rules should be formulated only if they facilitate the process of learning.

It is an essential point of the Berlitz Method that the student does not read any text until he is wholly familiar with the reading material, phonetically, semantically, and grammatically.

TEXTBOOKS

Berlitz textbooks contain the linguistic material selected for the course. But this material is not arranged in the same systematic way with which it is dealt orally; nor do these readers contain any rules, paraphrases, translations, or other explanations. The textbooks provide an opportunity to do some reading on the subject-matter of the course, in addition to the main oral classroom work. Just as reading is not the first objective of the Berlitz course, so Berlitz books are accessories to the method. The Berlitz student does not study the language by receiving some additional information about the book text, but he learns the language orally and does some supplemental reading to serve the main speaking objective. The accessory character of the textbooks makes it almost impossible to infer from them a clear notion about

the method. It is this fact which has constituted a major obstacle to examining the Berlitz Method theoretically, except for those within the Berlitz organization.*

After the principles of the Berlitz Method have been isolated, it should be quite obvious that the method can be adapted to specific tasks—whenever the speaking objective is considered essential. This has indeed been done with the vocabulary selected for a great variety of courses, more or less vocational in character. In fact, the possibilities of adapting the didactic principles of the Berlitz Method to meet different life requirements (and classroom needs) have never been exhausted.

We have given our main attention to the elementary stages of the Berlitz course not only because it sets the pattern for any further work, leading eventually to a speaking as well as a reading ability, but because it proves the feasi-

bility of a one hundred per cent direct approach right from the beginning, when the methodological difficulties are greatest. By detailed planning the Berlitz Method overcomes these difficulties, and it is in this specific achievement that we see the historical contribution of the Berlitz Method to the field of foreign language methodology.

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* Berlitz textbooks have been published in 42 different languages; the Method books in one or two volumes contain material for basic communication, traveling technique, living abroad, graded reading. They are supplemented for the more important languages by books on grammar, literature, commercial correspondence. A series of Self-Teachers has now been published in the United States, using the Berlitz word-list as a base. Thirty million volumes of Berlitz books have been sold since 1878.

* * *

"There is no royal road to real knowledge, only the long, arduous road of steady endeavour. You may understand the rules of grammar, have a good idea of the philosophical principles underlying the forms of a language, possess a large vocabulary; it will be so much dead weight unless you plunge into the living language and practise, practise, practise!"—P. G. Wilson, *The Student's Guide to Modern Languages*, 1935.

WORLD HORIZONS FOR TEACHERS

That's the title of a recent volume in the Teachers College Studies in Education series, and its author, Leonard S. Kenworthy, Ed.D., is a professor of education at Brooklyn College. We quote from pages 14-15: "The world-minded teacher will also need to learn at least one FL well if he would really penetrate into the life and thought of another nation. In this respect Americans are abysmally lax. He will also be so convinced of the importance of this skill that he will encourage his students to concentrate on at least one modern language as a part of their preparation for life in this 20th-century world."

* * *

Single-Objective Freshman Language

FOR decades the standard language offering awaiting most college freshmen has been the "Intermediate" review-grammar-plus-reading course which meets three times per week on alternate days. Armed with a carefully chosen review grammar this course proceeds to analyze grammar *ad nauseam*, to drill vocabulary and verbs, and especially to write and correct English-to-French sentences. This typical pattern will usually include a fair slice of time devoted to reading or translating one or two books, if the students make enough progress during the first term. And finally, there may be a little time left for question-and-answer conversation in the language based on the brief reading passages found in the grammar.

It is to the many colleagues throughout our American colleges who still follow this pattern that I should like to address myself in this brief discussion. You are the victims of the limitations inherent in the three-hour course imposed by your college faculty which has not yet learned that this phase of language study requires endless drill and a generous number of contact-hours to show any kind of progress during the brief six- or twelve-hour language requirement allotted you in the curriculum. You have tried in vain, formally and informally, to impress your colleagues with your plight. Hence, in disgust and despair you have returned to your impossible task of hammering away at the grammar, vocabulary, verbs, reading and some conversation.

In your effort to clarify and drill you have spent a goodly share—perhaps more than half—of your class time in writing and correcting French sentences. The class period comes to an abrupt end each day with the usual good intentions unfulfilled. At the end of the year the final examinations reveal the awful truth that your hapless students did not remember what you repeated countless times, and accusingly you point a finger at the weak preparatory school training in Latin, or English or in the fundamentals of your language. But, I fear, the fault cannot be found there.

I believe some of the trouble could be found in answering some of the following questions: 1) Is the three-hour language course insufficient to make reasonable progress? 2) Do we spend our time wisely in the six or twelve hours of "Language Requirement" allotted us? and 3) Are we propagating the best feelings from students, and colleagues, by insisting on a rigid three-pronged objective in the freshman language course? In other words, perhaps it would be wise for us to reexamine our objectives before we reiterate our request for more contact hours. If the regular pattern is to be three-hour courses in language I can see but one alternative until the pattern is changed: to reduce the number of objectives to *one* instead of three.

The "three-pronged objective" I referred to is of course that of writing, reading and conversation, and in that order. I have placed the three objectives in this order deliberately because, frankly, the average review grammar, three-hour course I have seen devotes better than half of the fifty minute period to writing or correcting English-to-French sentences. Much of the rest of the period is spent in analyzing grammar or in drilling. If there is time enough to read a book during the year, little attention is given to conversation in the language.

To this I can testify because students who came to my conversation course from such overworked review grammar courses had to start at a very elementary level of conversation. Possibly these students reached the intermediate level by the end of the year.

We all know that to write French is by far the most difficult skill to achieve and is as time-consuming as the other two skills put together, yet the writing skill will be the least used by the students. A small fraction of one percent will ever use it in our modern world, hence there is little excuse for our insisting on "writing" a foreign language except for drill purposes. And, incidentally, in reducing the emphasis on writing this will also apply to the method of testing. It would be quite unfair and

unreasonable to ask students to write French in tests when there is a minimum of writing in the course. This may be a challenge to devise new methods.

Now that I have been so arbitrary in reducing our language objectives to reading and speaking, let us examine the reason for reducing the number of aims still more if we want to make substantial progress in the limited time allotted us as language teachers. Theoretically at least, if greater efficiency can be reached by reducing our aims to two instead of three, it should follow that if we reduce them to one we should achieve maximum results. If so, would such an arbitrary and radical change be justified?

Consulting my personal experience with my course in French conversation again, I found that the students' election of my course did not in the least guarantee that they had ability to acquire an understanding and a speaking knowledge of French. Usually their motivation was the best, but too often their ear was bad. In such instances the best that could be expected of a year's exposure was a fair ability to understand French, but the imitation and speaking ability left much to be desired. I even seriously wondered if such students could ever learn to speak a respectable brand of French. Certainly, we have all noted many examples of foreigners living in America for years who seem to get worse instead of better in their English. The least we can say is that they manage to make themselves understood, and perhaps we should be happy with this limited objective in our students.

However, if a student's physical equipment in hearing is limited have we a right to grade him on the same scale with the keen-eared student who can imitate readily almost any foreign sound? I have seen many a teacher grade severely a student who simply could not distinguish shades of sound. In such instances, the student is quick to recognize the injustice and soon becomes resentful and unhappy. I even suspect that the injured pride of many such students has been responsible for their aggressive dislike for foreign language study.

Circumstances and observation seemed to point inevitably to the next step and, indeed, three years ago this fall we decided to take it.

Recent research apparently supports our decision. On the assumption, then, that the average freshman has difficulty in distinguishing fine shades of pronunciation and intonation, and still more difficulty in imitating those shades, we devised a battery of tests to help us establish some sort of arbitrary line of demarcation between the keen-eared and the dull-eared student. During the first two weeks of class we conducted the reading and conversation classes in the foreign language in order to detect any misjudgments resulting from our testing. During this trial period we could shift students from the reading to the conversation class or vice versa without inconvenience because both sections meet at the same time in each case. We established the registration for reading at 25 students and at 15 for the conversation.

The tests used were the Cooperative French or Spanish Advanced Form, the Chicago Aural Abilities Test, plus a five minute conversation interview in the foreign language with a member of our staff. Since we found that the predicted scores of the Chicago Aural Abilities Test correlated with the actual scores by .73, the only weak link in our testing was the conversation interview which tended to frighten the student into a generally poor performance. Nevertheless, even these scores correlated quite well with the other two, especially when we worked out a refined scale of values for different aspects of the conversation interview. With tape recorders this two-way conversation test will eventually be improved.

After two experiences in evaluating the students' abilities we have nearly eliminated the misfits in our placement but we are looking forward to the day when we can reduce the total testing time from two hours to one hour or less. We found that the general proportion between those who should be in the reading course is two students for every one in the conversation course, but the arbitrary line can be established differently at will. With our students this proportion seems to make for more homogeneous groups.

The materials read in the reading course will of course vary with every department. We have chosen to apportion our reading matter to coincide with the fields of concentration elected

by our students in their Junior and Senior years. For instance, if 20% of our students tend to concentrate in Economics we will apportion 20% of our readings in French from that field. Meanwhile, we are enlisting the cooperation of our colleagues in assigning papers to their majors which will require them to go to the foreign sources for their information. Naturally, literature is one of the fields but French or Spanish literature is by no means the exclusive domain of our reading course. Our excuse for this is that those who are placed in the reading course are the students who have less language ability than those in the conversation course. Since this is true generally, we feel it would be too much to expect students to read highly refined literary style at this level of language study.

The materials used in the conversation course are the civilizations of the French or Hispanic world and of course the every day, practical subject of ordinary living and travel. In addition to the three class periods, students in the conversation course must spend two half-hour sessions per week in the language laboratory for extra listening and conversational practice.

In conclusion, we chose the alternative of the single-objective language course for French and Spanish students entering Colgate and I doubt if any of us would countenance a return to the triple-objective even if our class contacts were tripled. In fact, we have gone even farther; we place our entering Freshmen, regardless of whether they had two or three years of secondary school language, into two different levels of reading and two of conversation courses, depending on the scores we obtain during the Freshman Week. This increases the chances for error in our judgment of the students' aptitude, but we still can rectify this error by the end of the first two weeks of

classes.

Our results seem to warrant our new single-objective approach to language. We believe we have reached a higher level of proficiency in each of the objectives we have selected. Students are happier because they are in the sections where they are best qualified to succeed. Failures have been reduced to a minimum. While the students in the reading course have not progressed in their conversational ability, the students in the conversational course do as well and better in the Advanced Form of the Cooperative Examination and in reading generally. The staff is less harassed and frustrated than they were with the former three-objective review grammar course. No one feels the hopeless rush to finish one skill in order to begin the second and the third one. In other words, we seem to have found, at least, a solution to the shortage of the time granted language teachers who must break down bad habits, replace bad habits with good ones, or to create and establish good habits in the skills of language. Meanwhile, our students seem to have fewer inhibitions, and frustrations because they are placed as accurately as our testing instruments will permit. Furthermore, we have revamped our courses to do exactly what we set out to do, and we also test for the one objective and no more. Perhaps the over-all philosophy of teaching which does a great deal for our morale and that of the students is the attitude of taking the student as he comes to us, poorly trained or well trained, dull-eared or keen-eared. We then give him all the odds by selecting him into the right division, and after that he must swim or sink, but he must play the game fairly and squarely if he is to succeed. In this way no one passes the buck and everyone understands there is a job to be done.

CHARLES A. CHOQUETTE

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* * *

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* * *

A Modern Inquiry into the Educational Ideas of Montaigne

MICHEL EYQUEM DE MONTAIGNE anticipated modern educators by his insistence on pupil activity. It is remarkable that almost four hundred years ago he saw very clearly that real education is not a passive process, but an active interaction between the pupil and his environment. Modern education further insists, however, that pupil activity should be under the skillful guidance of a competent teacher. Such a conception will result not only in maximum pupil growth but will also equip the pupil to render maximum returns to society. The liberal wing of modern education would also encourage pupils to play a more functional role in shaping society to transcendental goals. In *Les Essais, Livre I, chapitre xxv* Montaigne seems to cite with approval a quotation from Persius to mold pupils like plastic clay, which apparently contradicts his previous principle of learning by doing. However, his reference to the Latin poet is nothing more than casual, whereas his modern conception of the learning process is developed at some length. Furthermore, Montaigne was not always logical nor was he primarily interested in building a perfect structure of educational thought. Like his style, his thoughts on education ramble delightfully on with little concern for inconsistencies or implications of statements loosely made. But Montaigne and Shakespeare are one in decrying words whose shadow is often mistaken for the substance. Verbalisms are likewise the anathema of modern education. In Montaigne's terms, one will never learn to ride a horse, toss a spear, or play upon a lute without actually experiencing those activities. But Montaigne advocates this activity principle to an unworkable degree.

He writes, "Je veux qu'en la desbauche mesme il surpasse en vigueur et en fermeté ses compagnons . . ." (*loc. cit.*). He would have his pupil laugh, carouse, and debauch, and learn through experience that forbidden fruit

is never so juicy as callow youth always envisions it to be. Montaigne's pupil must first experience evil before accepting goodness. He must be personally convinced that loose living is only for fools. In other words, the end justifies the means. While modern educational psychology teaches that learning is most real when experienced directly by the learners, it is equally convinced that considerable learning also takes place, especially by highly intelligent minds, when experienced vicariously. Chemical analyses have shown that these vicarious experiences bring changes in body secretions and blood composition somewhat similar to those in individuals who have undergone the actual experience. People whose heartbeat and breathing are affected at plays, who weep genuine tears who sometimes even leave the theatre because they are so overcome, have all experienced vicariously. Pupils studying history cannot possibly experience directly the crossing of the Rubicon, the coronation of Charlemagne, or the storming of the Bastille. Under the skillful guidance of the teacher, however, pupils can be led to relive those experiences as realistically as possible. To read passively, to repeat from memory, to view without reaction, is to betray any real understanding of the nature of the learning process. Nevertheless, modern education recognizes the necessity of imposing certain knowledge and behavior patterns even though the pupil may not always understand why. Especially will this be true in the sphere of moral values or whenever there is jeopardy to personal life. Usually, however, direct experience, not imposition, is the accepted tenet of modern psychological learning.

Montaigne is opposed to corporal punishment. "Ostez moy la violence et la force . . ." (*loc. cit.*). He tells us he felt the rod but twice in his life and reared his children with leniency. Montaigne lashes out against the schools of his day in which he often heard the whimperings

of boys who were being punished. These observations of physical brutality rampant in the schools of his day had already been made by Rabelais. In Holland and England, Erasmus, Locke, and Swift reported that physical violence persisted even in their time. Montaigne recognizes that punishment may sometimes be necessary, but suggests it should not be meted out when the teacher is upset, (*Livre II, chapitre xxxi*). Here again Montaigne strikes a modern note. It is much better, he maintains, to have a cooling-off period, then sit down with the child and discuss the difficulty in a rational manner. Only recently have modern labor-manager relations incorporated this principle into their disputes. The position of modern education would be to make punishment unnecessary by anticipating disciplinary problems, but having taken place, corrective not punitive measures should be prescribed. A heated controversy has been raging for some time among specialists in guidance education as to the relative merits of directive and non-directive techniques. These subtle psychological differences may be left to the specialist, but in general, it is much better for both teacher and pupil to analyze the latter's antisocial behavior as dispassionately as possible, evaluate the delinquent act without any trace of emotional bias, and guide the pupil to fix his own punishment the purpose of which will be to develop a deeper understanding, a more wholesome attitude, and ultimately lasting self-control by the pupil himself. In an age when teachers were little more than indentured servants given to profanity, drunkenness, and generally of reprehensible character, who often taught with a scowl on their face and a bloody birch rod on their desk, it is refreshing to find Montaigne insisting on the extreme care which should be exercised in selecting a teacher. He would rather have a tutor with "... la teste bien faite que bien pleine ..." (*Livre I, chapitre xxv*).

The views of Montaigne on child psychology betray a curious ambivalence between principle and practice. Like the Jesuits he realizes the importance of one's early formative years. Impertinence, bullying, and cruelty are traits which often have their beginnings in a child's tender years. Hence, he argues, it is wrong to condone

a child's mistreatment of his pet. "Je treuve que nos plus grands vices prennent leur ply dez nostre plus tendre enfance . . ." (*Livre I, xxii*). Montaigne would nevertheless entrust the child's preschool education to his nurse. Why? one may ask. Montaigne's affection for his father is well known, whereas his silence about his mother is embarrassing. It is a most grievous omission in Montaigne, and therein may lie a possible clue.

Montaigne also proclaims that the products of men's minds are more dear to him than their offspring of flesh and blood. There are few men, he declares, who would not have preferred to sire the *Aeneid* than the handsomest youth in Rome. It is well known that Montaigne was an indifferent father. In *Livre II, chapitre viii* he betrays a cold, almost unnatural attitude toward little children. Modern child psychology does not support Montaigne's rejection of children either in theory or in practice. Without accepting all the dire consequences attributed to parental rejection, most psychologists of adolescent behavior have been able to trace a causal connection between acts of juvenile delinquency with earlier parental rejection. In a carefully designed and controlled ten-year study¹ Dr. and Mrs. Sheldon Glueck of the Harvard Law School discovered that indifferent affection by either or both parents toward their child may be a strong contributing factor toward the child's subsequent delinquent behavior.

It is often said that Montaigne disparaged memory. A closer reading of his text will show, however, that he disparaged mere rote memory and lamented the neglect of judgment, understanding, and virtue. Here again the sixteenth century sage is supported by modern education which concedes the ability to reproduce memorized facts may be legitimate under certain circumstances, yet insists that the facts should be learned functionally, and subsidiary to values, concepts, attitudes, appreciations, ideals, and those understandings which give the facts their meaning. A mere bookish knowledge is useless, murmurs Montaigne. Learning and life should be integrated, declares modern edu-

¹ Eleanor and Sheldon Glueck, *Unraveling Juvenile Delinquency* (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1950).

cation. That is, learning should take place in life settings and for life purposes. Montaigne is quite modern in suggesting field trips, and if properly motivated, the pupils will gladly suffer even museum fatigue. He advocates lessons which are taught without any set time and place, falling in naturally with every action, "... comme par rencontre, sans obligation de temps et de lieu..." (*Livre I, xxv*). Such a procedure, Montaigne avers, will result in learning as a pleasure, not as a bore. This calls for a high degree of skilful guidance which many teachers today are unwilling or incapable of giving. Montaigne bemoans the vast number of individuals he has met whose memories were bursting with classical quotations, yet whose minds were quite devoid of any real depth. He regrets we learn not for life but for school, and quotes Seneca with approval, "Non vitae, sed scholae discimus." A library lover like Montaigne could hardly dislike books, but he prefers to have his pupil digest and apply the wisdom contained in those books. Virtue, piety, and learning, Montaigne wishes to see translated into action. Merely memorizing and mouthing platitudes is no guarantee that a pupil has profited from his studies. "Sçavoir par coeur n'est pas sçavoir..." (*Livre I, xxv*). Once more the sage of Périgord strikes a modern educational note. This is not the place to become involved in epistemological theories. Suffice it to say that Dewey concurs with Montaigne in declaring that the origin of human knowledge lies in experience. Neither would maintain that a student's head is like an empty bottle into which may be poured the distilled wisdom of the ages. Pupils may be able to decline the noun "virtus" in Latin, complains Montaigne, but they do not always love it (*Livre II, xvii*). In the same essay he laments that the purpose of education in his day is to make pupils "... non bons et sages, mais sçavants..." Unfortunately there are many who attend church regularly, recite their creeds, perform their various rituals, yet their lives are in direct contrast to the teachings of their church. "The conduct of our lives is the true mirror of our doctrine," Montaigne reminds us (*Livre I, xxv*). Confusion between the symbol and the substance, between pedantry and learning, still persists in many schools even today. No one

can give us an education. We have to get it by ourselves. That is, real learning is not passive, but active. Montaigne also recognizes the necessity of adapting different methods to different goals. He regrets that teachers talk too much and that pupils are often awed by their mentors. While conceding a legitimate place to the lecture method, modern theories of teaching frown upon its abuse, to wit: professors are likely to reduce lectures to sustained exercises in dictation; lectures do not encourage students to ask questions, so that even lecturers are not stimulated to their highest mental alertness. Montaigne does not go so far as to advocate that pupils call teachers by their first names, but he is one with modern education in suggesting that a more fruitful outcome might ensue if the relationship between pupil and teacher were less dictatorial and more democratic.

So much for methodology. So far as the curriculum is concerned, the former mayor of Bordeaux declares it is quite conceivable that one may learn from sources other than books. A garden, a conversation with a friend, a few minutes of reflective solitude, all can contribute to learning. "Ce grand monde... je veux que ce soit le livre de mon escholier" (*Livre I, xxv*). This shows Montaigne's modern conception of the curriculum which is no longer considered to be a fixed body of subject-matter. Modern education tells us the curriculum is as broad as life itself. Montaigne recognizes a hierarchy of values and assigns a leading role to philosophy in his curriculum. He regrets that philosophy is usually studied near the end of one's school career after the student's scale of values has been crystallized for some time. A practical, applied philosophy might very well be offered early in the curriculum, even to little children, with theoretical, abstract philosophy reserved for the university. Character education is very much concerned with standards of behavior rather than rules, formulated in positive terms by the group, rather than prescribed by some superior authority. History also plays an important role in the curriculum proposed by Montaigne. The purpose should be not to memorize dates, battles, and dynasties but to probe into the deepest recesses of human nature, to analyze the character of the makers of

history, and to appraise the motives of men on the stage of life. The study of history, declares modern education, should integrate with the daily life of the pupils. Out of the study of history should emerge those skills, concepts, appreciations, attitudes, and ideals which are indispensable in the daily behavior of American citizens.

Without excusing Montaigne but seeking merely to be fair, it should be pointed out that our subject lived in a monarchical society and therefore, was primarily concerned with educating the aristocratic, not the common child. Hence he should not be condemned too much for failing to promote vigorously education for the masses, a conception peculiar only to the United States, even in our twentieth century. Nevertheless, in his essay *De la présomption*, Montaigne declares unequivocally that there is no individual who may not be awakened in some way.

Montaigne anticipated the concepts of pupil inventory and provision for individual differences. Even today there are parents who maintain that children should be seen and not heard. All the more remarkable, therefore, that almost four centuries ago Montaigne suggested the pupils themselves be consulted in order to discover their interests, capacities, and needs. Incredible as it may seem there are still some teachers who refuse to recognize any differences among their pupils and attempt to teach them in lockstep fashion. Montaigne believed with Plato, (*Republic*, iv), that children should not necessarily follow in their fathers' vocations, but wherever their interests and talents might take them. Montaigne declares he would have even a duke's son become a piemaker if his proclivities lay in that direction.

Montaigne was concerned with the whole child. This modern doctrine is not accepted even now by traditional teachers who concentrate their efforts exclusively upon the minds of their pupils. Yet pupils persist in bringing to school not only their heads but their emotions and bodies as well. The sage of Périgord would have also his pupils' manners, bearing, and behavior cultivated. His advocacy of a sound mind in a sound body is merely the echo of Juvenal whose doctrine had fallen into disrepute during the ascetic medieval period.

Today good mental, emotional, and physical health are no longer disputed by modern educators. Montaigne cites Plato (*Laws*, viii) for advocating sports, and the Frenchman anticipated Froebel in pointing out the possibilities for building character through play. Not so commendable, but understandable in the light of his times, however, is Montaigne's injunction to disregard some of the rules of medicine which we accept today.

The current movement to introduce foreign languages into the elementary school finds a champion in Montaigne who declared that unless a man's tongue were formed in his youth, he could never acquire a true pronunciation. Recalling his parents and family servants who spoke to him directly in Latin, Montaigne tells us he learned the language without "a whipping or a single tear." He therefore advocates the direct method. He felt that too great a price was paid learning languages in the traditional way. His father's pedagogical views were apparently effective for young Montaigne was placed in advanced Latin classes at the Collège de Guyenne which was one of the best schools in sixteenth century France. Montaigne recommended travel to acquire a speaking knowledge of modern languages which he suggests should precede Latin and Greek. Many modern language teachers disagree here with Montaigne and insist that Latin should precede the study of French, Spanish or Italian. Many articles have been written to support this assumption but there is very little objective evidence available. The few experiments which have been performed have resulted in contradictory conclusions. Further carefully designed, rigorously controlled research is imperative before stating categorically whether Montaigne or modern language teachers are correct on the proper sequence of classical and modern language study.

In *Livre I*, xxiv Montaigne gives us only an inkling of his prejudice against learned ladies but later in *Livre III*, iii he completely betrays the limitations of his century in decrying blue-stockings. He asks, "What need have they of anything but to live beloved and honored?" Grudgingly he concedes that poetry may be a proper subject for their gentle intellect. History too, he believes they may study with profit be-

cause it "will help them to . . . bear the inconstancy of a lover, the rudeness of a husband, wrinkles, and the like." One cannot help but recall *Les Femmes Savantes*, I, vii.

To sum up, Montaigne is modern by his advocacy of learning by doing, which is good John Dewey philosophy. Montaigne is a pragmatist who believed pupils learn best by direct experience. The object or action should precede the word, the concrete before the symbol. His objective was practical living achieved through sensory, cerebral, and motor methods. Like Plato before him and Locke and Rousseau who followed him, Montaigne prescribed learning through educational games. In his emphasis on pupil interest, Montaigne anticipates Herbart. Though many of Herbart's concepts are only of academic interest today, both the Frenchman and the German are still applauded by modern specialists in motivation. Another basic concept of progressive education anticipated by the sixteenth century Frenchman was his emphasis on pupil needs, interests, and capacities to achieve. He gave central importance to the personality of the child. In Montaigne's time the teacher dominated the school. The teacher could insult, ridicule, and use corporal punishment with a lavish hand. Like modern education, Montaigne gave great emphasis to developing the creative abilities of pupils. He was deeply concerned with their all-round development. Most of Montaigne's thoughts on education are not original with him. They can be found in Plato, Aristotle, and

Quintilian. Montaigne's mental processes are too diffuse, rambling, and illogical to write a formal treatise on education. Yet it is significant that Comenius, Locke, and Rousseau did not hesitate to pick at his brains to evolve their own more systematized educational theories. Montaigne may be correct in denouncing joyless learning but in his reaction against dictatorial control he fails to make sufficient provision for skillful guidance by the teacher. Montaigne's policy of pupil *laissez-faire* might very easily result in pupil dilettantism. His ideal was a well-read, well-travelled, polished gentleman of the world. Perhaps his chief significance lies in his protest against pedantry, though he himself quoted more and more from classical writers with each new revision of his *Essays*. Parenthetically it may be recorded here that for every assertion attributed to Montaigne, it is possible to cite his exact words, but the present writer has eschewed this procedure in order not to overburden this paper with endless quotations. The most that one can say is that in many respects Montaigne was far in advance of the educational principles and practices current in his day, and in some few instances he was contemporary with our own educational thought. But his contribution to literature was perhaps more significant than his contribution to education.

CARLO VACCA

Watertown Senior High School
Watertown, Massachusetts

* * *

THE COLLEGE ENTRANCE EXAMINATION BOARD recently announced a program of 12 Advanced Placement Tests which will enable colleges to grant advanced course standing and credit to students admitted with superior high school training. The tests, which have been developed experimentally during the past three years by the School and College Study of Admission with Advanced Standing, will be regularly administered by the College Board for the first time during the week of May 7, 1956. Among the 12 fields in which Advanced Placement Tests will be offered next May are French, German, Latin, and Literature.

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National Federation of Modern Language Teachers Associations

Secretary's Minutes of Annual Meeting of Executive Committee, December 30, 1954

The Executive Committee of the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers Associations met in Parlor A, Statler Hotel, New York City, at 9:00 A.M. on December 30, 1954. In the absence of the President of the Executive Committee and of the Federation, Vice-President Stephen A. Freeman of Middlebury College (on sabbatical leave for a world tour), the Vice-President, Professor Fred L. Fehling of the State University of Iowa, presided.

1. *Roll Call.* The roll call of delegates showed all associations represented by their regularly elected delegates, with one exception—Professor Julian Harris, of the University of Wisconsin, represented the American Association of Teachers of French as alternate delegate for Dr. Stephen A. Freeman. The retiring Managing Editor of *The Modern Language Journal*, Julio del Toro of the University of Michigan, and the Business Manager of the *Journal*, Stephen L. Pitcher of the St. Louis Public Schools, were also present in their capacities as regular delegates. This complete representation of all the constituent associations proves the wisdom of the Federation's policy of paying the travel expenses of all regular delegates and alternates.

The Managing Editor Elect, Professor Camillo P. Merlino of Boston University, was also present throughout the meeting as an invited guest.

2. *Approval of Minutes of 1953 Annual Meeting.* Following the roll call, the Secretary presented the minutes of the 1953 annual meeting, as printed in *The Modern Language Journal* for May, 1954, pages 257-259, as the official minutes. The minutes were approved as published.

3. *Report of Secretary-Treasurer.* Item 3 on the agenda was a brief oral report by the Secretary-Treasurer, covering the high-points of his activities of the past year, particularly as to (a) the income tax status of the Federation, and (b) its incorporation under the laws of the District of Columbia, as authorized by the Executive Committee at the 1953 annual meeting.

(a) *Income and Social Security Taxes.* The Secretary reported that by ruling of the U. S. Commissioner of Internal Revenue dated February 18, 1954, the Federation was ruled exempt from Federal income tax under the provisions of Section 101 (6) of the Internal Revenue Code, "as it was shown that you are organized and operated exclusively for educational purposes." . . . "This ruling modifies our ruling of August 10, 1946, and is applicable with respect to all years of your operation."

On April 8, 1954, the Commissioner of Internal Revenue made a further ruling to the effect that "our ruling of February 18, 1954 will be applied without retroactive effect to the extent that for the purposes of Section 1426 (b) (9)

(B) and 1426 (1) of the Federal Insurance Contributions Act it will be effective on and after January 1, 1952."

These two favorable rulings, which made the employees of the Federation eligible for Social Security benefits beginning January 1, 1952, were effected through the efforts of the Secretary-Treasurer, with documentary "assists" from the Business Manager of *The Modern Language Journal*. They involved one long visit to the Baltimore office and several visits to the Washington headquarters of the Internal Revenue Service, without the employment of legal aid, as had been authorized by the Executive Committee, and therefore without unusual expense of any kind.

Under these rulings, the Managing Editor of the *Journal*, the Business Manager, and the Secretary-Treasurer were included under the Social Security Act. In the Secretary-Treasurer's case, this action was purely academic in nature, since he had been entitled for a number of years to maximum Social Security benefits as a regular employee of The George Washington University. The Managing Editor had not been eligible previously because he was employed by a State, and the Business Manager because he was employed by the City of St. Louis. In the retiring Managing Editor's case, election of his successor had been postponed, by action of the Executive Committee at the 1953 meeting, in order to leave the Committee free to extend his term for an additional six months, if necessary, in order to make him eligible for Social Security benefits in case the Internal Revenue ruling was made effective as of January 1, 1954 instead of applying retroactively to 1952 and 1953. The fact that this kindly-meant action by the Executive Committee only made much more complicated the election of a new Managing Editor because of this postponement, emphasizes the goodwill toward the incumbent manifested by the Executive Committee in its efforts to protect his retirement interests and his economic future. (See the minutes of the 1953 meeting, *Modern Language Journal* for May, 1954, page 258, top of the second column.) Subsequent legislation by Congress extended Social Security protection to State employees, but it would have been impossible to foresee this in December, 1953; if it had, the Executive Committee would have been justified in proceeding at that time to the election of a new Managing Editor, for the term January 1, 1955-December 31, 1958, in accordance with its usual practice.

(b) *Incorporation.* The other matter presented by the Secretary-Treasurer had to do with the incorporation of the Federation, authorized by the Executive Committee at its 1953 meeting (see minutes, *Modern Language Journal* for May, 1954, pages 258-259). A new incorporation law for the

District of Columbia, passed by Congress in 1954, became effective as of December 1, 1954. This law provided less cumbersome and less expensive machinery for incorporation, and eliminated the need for representation by attorneys and the like. Accordingly, incorporation papers for the Federation were filed December 24, 1954 and subsequently duly recorded with the D. C. Recorder of Deeds. The incorporators were, in addition to the Secretary-Treasurer, Director Leon E. Dostert of the Georgetown University Institute of Languages and Linguistics, and—also under the authorization mentioned in the minutes cited above—Dr. Marjorie C. Johnston of the U. S. Office of Education. The board of directors of the corporation are the regularly elected members of the Executive Committee of the Federation, and the recorded legal address of the corporation is 5500 Thirty-third Street, N. W., Washington 15, D. C. The total expense involved was purely nominal. (This would not have been the case prior to December, 1954.)

4. *Election of Managing Editor for the Term 1955-1958 Inclusive.* The Secretary reported for the minutes on the results of the mail ballot for Managing Editor, already announced officially to all members of the Executive Council by individual telegrams sent by the Secretary-Treasurer on December 18, 1954. The results were as follows:

Camillo P. Merlino:	9 votes
Harry Steinhauer:	5 votes
J. Alan Pfeffer:	1 vote
Not voting:	1

Total:	16 votes
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(Necessary to elect, 9 votes.)

Professor Merlino, having received a majority of the votes, was again formally declared elected by the Acting President, and was presented in person to the Executive Committee for a merited round of applause.

It had been expected that a mail vote for the office of Managing Editor could be taken during the summer, but the ballot was delayed, in part by the late nomination of Professor Steinhauer and in part by the withdrawal of his name by Professor Claude Lemieux just as the ballot was about to be sent out.

Professor Merlino was also officially informed of his election as Managing Editor in a letter from the Secretary-Treasurer dated December 31, 1954.

5. *Financial Report of the Secretary-Treasurer.* The Secretary-Treasurer presented his annual report for 1954 as Treasurer of the Federation, showing a balance from 1953 in the current checking account, at the American Security and Trust Company, Washington, D. C., of \$4,046.90, and receipts during the year of \$2,495.91, of which \$2,253.27 was the Federation's share of the surplus for 1953 from operations of *The Modern Language Journal*, and \$242.64 a payment by the Business Manager covering Social Security taxes for the Managing Editor and himself for the years 1952 and 1953. Disbursements amounted to \$1,220.98, leaving an excess of receipts over disbursements for 1954 of \$1,274.93, and a cash balance in the checking account, as of December 17, 1954, of \$5,321.83. The balance in the savings account as of the same date was \$1,076.87. Both these balances were officially certified correct by the Auditor

of the American Security and Trust Company. The Treasurer's accounts were professionally audited by a well-known Washington firm of Certified Public Accountants, Messrs. Councilor, Buchanan, Mitchell, and Hayes, with offices in the Wire Building, Washington, D. C., which certified that the records had been maintained in a satisfactory manner and the balances were as stated. The Auditors also inspected the Federation's U. S. Government bonds, which have a maturity value of \$7,000.00, deposited in safe deposit box No. 4026, Main Office, American Security and Trust Company, and so certified. (Following the annual meeting, the Treasurer, under authorization previously given by the President, Dr. Stephen A. Freeman, transferred an additional \$1,000 from the checking to the savings account.)

6. *Managing Editor's Report.* The retiring Managing Editor, Assistant Professor del Toro of the University of Michigan, then gave an oral report of his activities during the year, and also stated that since Social Security benefits had now been extended to employees of State institutions the action initiated by the Federation in 1951 to make him (and the Business Manager, Mr. Pitcher) eligible for these benefits had been unnecessary as far as he was concerned.

7. *Business Manager's Report.* The Business Manager, Mr. Stephen L. Pitcher of the St. Louis Public Schools, then presented his annual report for 1954. This report had been professionally audited and certified as correct by Mr. Joseph Dixon, of the Accounting Department of the Bank of St. Louis, St. Louis, Missouri. The report showed receipts from operations of *The Modern Language Journal* of \$18,909.69 and disbursements of \$12,602.59, leaving a balance of \$6,207.10 (exclusive of the \$100.00 operating fund) as of December 15, 1954. This report had been audited by the Federation's Auditing Committee, consisting of Professors Charles W. French and Julio del Toro, and found correct. The Business Manager also presented his usual careful detailed analysis of the *Journal* subscription list.

8. *Approval of Financial Reports.* For the Auditing Committee, Professor French recommended that the financial reports of the Secretary-Treasurer and the Business Manager be approved and accepted, and the Executive Committee voted to do so. (See also Item 14(d) below.)

9. *Proposed Committee on Expansion.* The first item of "new business" was that of expansion of the Federation. The Secretary-Treasurer discussed correspondence he had had with representative modern foreign language teachers of the Pacific Coast and South Atlantic regions, including his suggestions as to the principles that should guide such expansion. On motion by the Secretary-Treasurer, it was voted to authorize the President to appoint a Committee on Expansion of the Federation. (The Acting President, Professor Fehling, later expressed his belief that appointment of this committee should await the return to the country of the President of the Federation, Dr. Freeman.)

10. *Proposal of Interlanguage Teachers Committee of Greater Chicago.* The Secretary read a communication from the Secretary of the Interlanguage Teachers Committee of Greater Chicago, Miss Mary-Joan Minerva, urging participation by the Federation in the Greater Chicago Committee's project to urge colleges and universities to increase their foreign language requirements for admission to liberal arts colleges to four units of foreign language study, as well

as to broaden their foreign language requirements for the Bachelor's degree. After discussion it was *voted* that this matter was one primarily local in nature, and that the FLPMLA might offer a way in which the problem could be approached.

11. *Proposal of Middle States Modern Language Teachers Association on Resumption of Rebates to Member Associations.* As delegate of the Middle States Association of Modern Language Teachers, Dean Doyle presented a motion, passed at the 1954 annual meeting of that Association in Atlantic City, N. J., requesting the resumption of the former practice of allowing a rebate to member associations on subscriptions to *The Modern Language Journal*. Dean Doyle moved that the practice be resumed, and President Coleman, the delegate of AATSEEL and also a member of the Middle States Association, seconded the motion. In the discussion that followed, it developed that this refund, originally enjoyed by the charter-member associations, had been voluntarily given up by these associations in the 1940's, the Central States Association having gone to the lengths of changing its constitution, in which this privilege was mentioned (though not mentioned in the Constitution or By-Laws of the Federation itself) in order to eliminate it. The Business Manager expressed his willingness to reimburse association secretaries for expenses incurred primarily for the collection of subscriptions. The motion was put, and *failed to pass*. The Acting President, Professor Fehling, subsequently notified Mr. Latané, the secretary of the Middle States Association, of the Executive Committee's action.

After luncheon, the Committee resumed consideration of the agenda.

12. *Proposals Regarding the Editorship.*

(a) Various proposals involving having two editors had been informally advanced prior to the meeting. These ideas were discussed by Messrs. Kiddle, Tharp, and del Toro. Advantages cited were the possibility of greater representation of the various fields through overlapping terms, and greater smoothness in transition from one editor to another. It was pointed out that such changes would involve amendments to the Constitution and By-Laws, which refer to a single Managing Editor. After discussion it was *voted* to follow the traditional policy and elect a Managing Editor at the annual meeting of 1957, to take office for a four-year term beginning January 1, 1959.

(b) On motion of Professor Tharp, it was *voted* that the next Managing Editor, in succession to Professor Merlino, be chosen from the field of German.

13. *Distribution of Professor Tharp's "Bibliographies of Modern Language Methodology, 1946, 1947, 1948."* Professor Tharp discussed the distribution of these bibliographies, edited by him and published by the Ohio State University Press. As reported in the minutes of the 1953 annual meeting (see *Modern Language Journal*, May, 1954, page 258, for Professor Tharp's statement of sales, showing sales as of December 4, 1953 of only 43 copies out of an edition of 5000 copies with 26 copies sent gratis to reviewers, etc., leaving 4916 of the 5000 copies on hand as of that date). The situation apparently has not changed materially during the intervening year. On motion by Professor Tharp, it was *voted* to authorize the Business Manager, in his discretion, to

handle the distribution of the Tharp bibliographies on terms to be agreed upon between him and the Ohio State University Press.

Professor Tharp also reported that the analysis of Professor Purin's survey materials by one of his graduate students had been completed.

14. *Other New Business.*

(a) On motion by the Secretary-Treasurer it was *voted* to authorize the President to appoint a committee to study the Federation's Constitution and By-Laws and recommend revisions therein, for consideration at the next annual meeting. The Acting President appointed Messrs. Doyle (Chairman), Coleman, and Weigel as members of this committee.

(b) For the Auditing Committee, Professor French recommended that since both the Secretary-Treasurer's and the Business Manager's accounts are now regularly audited by professional auditors, these accounts be accepted in future without additional auditing by a subcommittee of the Executive Committee, provided that the accounts are audited and certified correct by professional auditors; he further moved that professional auditors be regularly employed for this purpose hereafter. It was *voted* to authorize this procedure.

(c) The Business Manager moved that the Executive Committee urge all member associations to take steps to have their members subscribe to *The Modern Language Journal*. It was *voted* to make this recommendation to member associations.

(d) Professor Kiddle moved that a committee be set up, composed of the official delegates of the "AAT's," with Business Manager Pitcher as an ex-officio member, to study the possibilities of joint-subscription plans between *The Modern Language Journal* and the various "AAT" official journals. It was *voted* to establish such a committee, with Professor Kiddle as chairman.

15. *Election of Officers for 1955.* There being no other new business, the Executive Committee proceeded to the election of officers for 1955. On separate motions, passed unanimously, it was *voted* to re-elect the present officers, as follows: *President:* Vice-President Stephen A. Freeman of Middlebury College; *Vice-President:* Professor Fred L. Fehling of the State University of Iowa; *Secretary-Treasurer:* Dean Henry Grattan Doyle of The George Washington University. There being no further business, the Executive Committee adjourned at 2:30 P.M.

Respectfully submitted,
HENRY GRATTAN DOYLE
Secretary-Treasurer

ROSTER OF ASSOCIATION DELEGATES, 1954 ANNUAL MEETING

Central States, Fred L. Fehling, Elton Hocking, Charles D. Morehead, James B. Tharp; *New England,* Charles W. French; *New York,* Otto Liedke; *Middle States,* Henry Grattan Doyle; *New Jersey,* Walter H. Freeman; *Pennsylvania,* Harold W. Weigel, AATSP, Lawrence B. Kiddle; AATF, Julian Harris (alternate for Stephen A. Freeman); AATG, Emma Marie Birkmaier; AATI, Alfred Galpin; AATSEEL, Arthur Coleman; Managing Editor of *The Modern Language Journal*, Julio del Toro; Business Manager of *The Modern Language Journal*, Stephen L. Pitcher.

WELCOME TO OUR NEW MANAGING EDITOR

IN WELCOMING Dr. Camillo Pascal Merlino to the active direction of *The Modern Language Journal* I know I speak for the other members of the Executive Committee of the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers Associations, as well as for myself, in expressing our satisfaction that the *Journal* is to be in the hands of one so well equipped by scholarly training, successful teaching experience, and national reputation, as well as in the personal qualities so necessary in a good editor: balanced judgment, willingness to make decisions, clarity of mind, selfless devotion to the cause, and the necessary efficiency, and physical and mental vigor, to meet the challenges inherent in the task, which his predecessors know is no easy one.

Professor Merlino, who recently became Chairman of the Department of Romance Languages at Boston University, after eighteen years of teaching there, brings wide and varied experience to the interests of *The Modern Language Journal* and of its readers and advertisers, as well as to the Federation itself, parent and sponsor of the *Journal*, now approaching the end of its fourth decade of distinguished service to the foreign language teachers of America.

Camillo Pascal Merlino was born in Windsor Locks, Connecticut, on August 1, 1900. He received his A.B., *magna cum laude*, from Harvard College in 1923. He continued his studies in the Harvard Graduate School, receiving his A.M. in 1926 and his Ph.D. in 1928. During this period he also served as Instructor in French and Tutor in the Division of Modern Languages at Harvard and (in 1927-28) at Radcliffe College. In 1926-27 he was awarded the Rogers Traveling Fellowship from Harvard, and spent a year of study in France, Italy, and Spain in preparation for his doctoral dissertation on "The Neo-Latin Studies of Mario Equicola, 1470-1525." In 1928-29 he was Instructor in French at the University of California; in 1929-30, Associate in Italian, Bryn Mawr College; from 1930-37 he taught Italian at the University of Michigan, as Assistant and (in 1936-37) as Associate Professor of Italian. Since 1937 he has been at Boston University as

Associate Professor (1937-38) and Professor of Romance Languages since 1938. During the war he also served there as Convenor for Foreign Languages in the Army Specialized Training Program.

In 1938 Dr. Merlino began his connection with the Middlebury College Language Schools as Acting Director of the "Scuola Italiana," and from 1939 to 1947 served as its Dean and Director. In 1952 Middlebury recognized his distinction in the foreign language field by conferring on him the honorary degree of Doctor of Letters.

Always interested in effective teaching as well as in scholarship, Professor Merlino served as secretary-treasurer of the American Association of Teachers of Italian from 1932 to 1940 and as its president in 1940. He has also been active for many years in the New England Modern Language Association, of which he was president in 1946-47. (Incidentally, he is the first Managing Editor of *The Modern Language Journal* to come from the New England area, having been nominated for the post by his colleague, Professor Charles W. French, who for many years has represented the New England Association on the Executive Committee of the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers Associations.) Professor Merlino is well acquainted with the scope and activities of the Federation, having served from 1932 to 1940 as a member of the Executive Committee and in 1937 as vice-president of the Federation. He was for twelve years president of the Circolo Italiano di Boston, and for many years has been a member of the Modern Language Association and an editorial consultant for *PMLA*. He is also a member of Phi Reta Kappa. Dr. Merlino's wife is the former Ann Spinale, to whom he was married in 1939.

Dr. Merlino has published numerous articles, reviews, and translations. Noteworthy publications are "The French Studies of Mario Equicola"; "References to Spanish Literature in Equicola's *Natura de Amore*"; and "A Bibliography of Italian Homage Volumes." He has collaborated on the *Bibliografia Veneziana* of the Istituto Veneto di Scienze, Lettere ed Arti.

Professor Merlino, broadly trained in Romance languages, literatures, and philology, and with teaching experience in Italian, French, Spanish, and Romance Philology, is no narrow specialist. Among his teachers have been Professors Ford, Grandgent, and Morize at Harvard; Bertoni, Cian and Farinelli, in Italy; and Hauvette, Jeanroy, Estève and Foulet, in France. As editor, he will welcome contributions and items of interest, within the scope of the

Journal, in all areas of the broad field of the modern foreign languages. We look forward to a highly successful *Journal* under his able, active, and conscientious editorship, and pledge him the full cooperation of his fellow-workers to that end.

HENRY GRATTAN DOYLE
Secretary-Treasurer,
 National Federation of Modern
 Language Teachers Associations

* * *

FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN EUROPE

In Western Germany today, where education is compulsory through age 14, after 4 years of elementary school about 10 percent of the children go into secondary school to prepare for university work, and *all* of them (from age 10 or 11) study their first FL (English or French) for 9 years (5 or 6 times a week, 40-50 minutes a time); their second FL, begun 2 years later, for 7 years.

In France today, where education is compulsory until age 14 and where approximately 9 percent of the children finish secondary school, FLs are begun at age 11 and the minimum requirement is English or German 5 hours weekly for the first 2 years, then 3 hours weekly for 4 years, then 1½ hours weekly for a final year. Most students in secondary school, however, take additional FL study: English or German 3 hours weekly for 6 years and 1½ hours weekly for 1, plus (a) Latin for the same 7 years or (b) Italian or Spanish, begun 2 years later (at age 13) for 3 hours weekly continued for 4 years.

In Spain today, Latin is studied 5 times weekly in grades 6-12; Greek twice a week in grades 10-12; Italian or French 3 times weekly in grades 6-8; and English or German 3 times weekly in grades 9-11.

PROFICIENCY

It's a nice question whether or not the FL degree requirement in most colleges is sufficient to make the proficiency acquired *meaningful enough* in terms of today's needs. In only a few places (17) is the requirement expressed *solely* as a test of proficiency; in most it is, conventionally, a matter of hours and credits. If we use the normal equating of one high-school unit with 3 semester hours in college, we can get some notion of the *quantity* (though not the quality) of FL currently regarded as essential to liberal education. In 85 (out of 645 colleges the total requirement, including high school *and* college study, is less than 12 semester hours. In 240 it is exactly 12 hours; in 146, from 13 to 17 hours; in 105, 18 hours; in 28, from 19 to 22; in 24, exactly 24 hours; in 27, more than 24 semester hours. In only 10 percent of all the 645 colleges is the FL degree requirement more than three years of college study.

* * *

Notes and News

What others say . . .

Explaining "the enormous boon of access to a second literature," Winston Churchill said: "Since change is an essential element in diversion of all kinds, it is naturally more restful and refreshing to read in a different language from that in which one's ordinary daily work is done. To have a second language at your disposal, even if you only know it enough to read it with pleasure, is a sensible advantage. . . . Choose well, choose wisely, and choose one. Concentrate upon that one. Do not be content until you find yourself reading in it with real enjoyment. The process of reading for pleasure in another language rests the mental muscles; it enlivens the mind by a different sequence and emphasis of ideas. The mere form of speech excites the activity of separate brain-cells relieving in the most effective manner the fatigue of those in hackneyed use. One may imagine that a man who blew the trumpet for his living would be glad to play the violin for his amusement. So it is with reading in another language than your own." (*Painting as a Pastime*, 1950, p. 12.)

Speaking on "An Old Tradition in a New World," Dr. James B. Conant, former president of Harvard University, now U. S. High Commissioner for Germany, said at Michigan State University on 12 February 1955:

"More important than the changes in general education will be, I am sure, the changes in specialized education. One obvious example: we need for the first time in our history

a very large number of highly competent men and women with talents and tastes for work with people of foreign lands. We shall need to discover such people at an earlier age and provide the educational opportunities for their development. This in part is a question of acquiring skills—the command of foreign tongues—but also the development of an interest in other lands and peoples. . . .

"In [Holland and Switzerland] no one is considered educated who cannot speak fluently at least two foreign languages (and I underline the phrase 'at least'). The revolution in transportation has made the capitals of France, Germany, Italy, and Spain almost as close to Washington as those capitals were to each other at the time of World War I. . . . That the place of foreign language instruction, like the place of history, in the future curricula of American schools will be very different from the past is an obvious prediction."

"There are certain other subjects, however, which can only be learned by rote—notably FLs. These, it is well established, can best be assimilated before the age of 12; yet that is the point where our meager public-school program in languages starts. In a world where international commitments engage us more each day, such neglect is a national disgrace."—Harry Levin, "The Gulfs of Academe," *Atlantic Monthly* (Oct. 1954), p. 79.

Plain Language*

The tone of indignation is not encountered frequently in this magazine or in this column, but at the moment *Holiday* is indignant about a subject of particular interest to us (and to all Americans), and we intend to speak plainly.

The present status of foreign-language studies in American schools is a disgrace.

In the past twenty years there has been a steady decline in both the number and the percentage of American high-school students enrolled in foreign-language courses. Precise figures are hard to obtain, but whenever available they present a picture that is worse than discouraging. The last national survey of high-school language enrollments, made in 1949, shows that *only 21.5 per cent of all high-school students in this country study any foreign language at all*. Only 13.7 per cent study any modern language. The great proportion of these few boys and girls who do take such courses do not continue with them long enough to achieve more than a smattering of any language. Between a third and a quarter of the students drop out of language courses after

the first year. Less than 20 per cent of the original number continue into a third year; only a minuscule percentage continue into a fourth year.

The Modern Language Association is currently conducting a survey of language teaching in this country, and while its figures are still incomplete, it has already arrived at some obvious and shocking conclusions: although there has been some increase in language studies in a few states the over-all picture is one of steady deterioration since 1949. Fewer high-school students are studying foreign languages than ever before. And while there are some indications that interest in languages is on the increase in colleges and elementary schools, these are only glimmerings. Many states require only one or two language units for admission to college. *Only 30 per cent of the nation's 800-odd colleges demand any language study for entrance.*

Holiday's passionate interest in languages is a natural one. The world is our beat and no one can know the world in

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one language. We have run and will continue to run a series of articles on modern languages by the eminent Mario Pei—a series showing the rewards, the pleasures, the fascination of the subject. We therefore feel well within our rights when we address these obvious but apparently necessary words to high-school principals, to parents of high-school children and, especially, to high-school students themselves.

1. Real understanding of another people, another nation, is impossible without some knowledge of its language.

2. The day of the unilingual traveler, who shouts at foreigners in his own tongue and curses their stupidity for not understanding him, is mercifully ending. This is plain boorishness. European countries are far ahead of us in the teaching and mastery of other tongues; most Europeans,

even European children, have some knowledge of at least two languages. We Americans need to match their courtesy and efficiency in this respect.

3. Languages are fun. Languages are easy.

4. Whether or not you intend to see the world, the world is coming to see you, for today it lives next door to you. A man without languages is a provincial, a man on an island.

5. No one can begin to call himself educated or cultured if he knows only his native tongue, for he has not made one of the essential efforts toward comprehension of the world in which he lives and will inevitably remain ignorant of its various peoples, cultures and literature. He will never really know the differences between nations and, more important, their astonishing similarities.

Announcement

You can react to this in one of two ways: You can read it with pleasure or surprise, and do nothing (hoping others will do something); or you can let your Representative or Senator learn how you feel, and *persuade other citizens to do the same*.

On 9 May, 1955, Representative James Roosevelt of California introduced H. J. Res. 305, a Joint Resolution for increased FL study in the United States, which was referred to the Committee on Education and Labor. A similar resolution will be introduced in the Senate by Senator Fulbright. The House resolution reads as follows:

TO ENCOURAGE THE STUDY OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES BY CITIZENS OF THE UNITED STATES:

Whereas the present position of the United States in world affairs necessitates greater contact between citizens of the United States and citizens of other nations; and

Whereas increased knowledge of foreign languages on the part of citizens of the United States will facilitate the success of American peacetime policy; and

Whereas, in the event of war or other hostilities, a mastery of foreign languages on the part of military personnel will be of great value to the United States; and

Whereas the ability of Americans to communicate in foreign languages will contribute to greater and more effective

cooperation with the United Nations: Therefore be it

Resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That it is the policy of the United States to encourage the study of foreign languages by citizens of the United States.

SEC. 2. No department or agency of the United States shall in any way discourage the study of foreign languages by any citizen of the United States who is eligible for schooling or training under its facilities or sponsorship.

SEC. 3. Members and former members of the Armed Forces shall be given every opportunity and encouragement to take advantage of facilities for the study of foreign languages which are available to them. Each department and agency of the United States shall be responsible for encouraging the study of foreign languages among individuals under its jurisdiction, and shall not hinder or inhibit such study in any way.

SEC. 4. The Administrator of Veterans' Affairs shall not refuse to authorize the enrollment in language courses under its sponsorship of any veteran who has educational entitlement under Part VII or Part VIII of Veterans Regulation Numbered 1 (a), under Public Law 16 (Seventy-eighth Congress) as amended and extended, or under the Veterans' Readjustment Assistance Act of 1952, regardless of such veteran's present or contemplated vocation, if such veteran has the educational qualifications to pursue such courses.

Study Abroad

Elementary and secondary school teachers are eligible for U. S. Government fellowships for graduate study abroad for the academic year beginning in September, 1956.

In a recent announcement Kenneth Holland, President of the Institute of International Education, encouraged teachers to apply for these foreign study grants which give opportunities for study or research in various parts of the world. Mr. Holland suggested that interested teachers plan a program of study in their major field, such as history or literature, rather than in the general field of education, since education as a discipline is not generally taught in foreign universities. Teachers of modern languages, many of whom have been awarded U. S. Government grants in previous years, are particularly encouraged to enter the competition.

Participating countries in the Fulbright program where

opportunities for teachers appear most favorable are Australia, Austria, Belgium, Chile, Denmark, France, Germany, Italy, The Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, the Philippines, and the United Kingdom. Under the Buenos Aires Convention Program, grants are available for study in Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru and Venezuela.

Eligibility requirements for the foreign study fellowships are: (1) United States citizenship; (2) A college degree or its equivalent at the time the award is taken up; (3) Knowledge of the language of the country sufficient to carry on the proposed study; (4) Age 35 years or under; and (5) Good health.

Fulbright awards are made entirely in the currencies of

participating countries abroad. The Fulbright Act authorizes the use of foreign currencies and credits acquired through the sale of war surplus property abroad for educational exchanges. The awards cover transportation, tuition, books and maintenance for one academic year.

The programs under the Fulbright Act and the Buenos Aires Convention for the Promotion of Inter-American Cultural Relations are part of the international educational exchange activities of the Department of State. They will give almost 1,000 American citizens the chance to study abroad during the 1956-57 academic year. Since the establishment of these programs, over 4,600 American students have received grants for study abroad.

Final selection of Fulbright grantees is made by the Board of Foreign Scholarships appointed by the President of the United States. For the Buenos Aires Convention Program, the cooperating countries make the final selection of grantees. The Institute of International Education, is the agency designated by the Board of Foreign Scholarships

and the Department of State to screen applications for study abroad.

Competition for the 1956-57 program closes October 31, 1955.

Special opportunities as English language assistants in the secondary schools of France and Germany are also open to American teachers. The opportunities in France are offered by the French Government, and those in Germany are part of the program under the Fulbright Act. Basic requirements for these programs are the same as for the Fulbright study grants, except that applicants for France must be unmarried and under thirty years of age. Closing date for applications to France is January 15, 1956; the competition for grants in Germany closes October 31, 1955.

Teachers wishing to apply for any of these awards should write to the U. S. Student Department, Institute of International Education, 1 East 67th Street, New York 21, New York.

An Outlet in Latin America

American business offers many opportunities for college graduates with training in Latin-American affairs and languages, according to a study recently completed at the University of Illinois. Of 196 business firms that answered a questionnaire, 105 reported that they employ 769 persons

with such special training, and said that they would hire 71 immediately if qualified persons were available. Some of these jobs would allow the employee to remain in the United States, while others would require him to live in Latin-America.

A New Approach

A series of graduate courses for South American dentists will be conducted in *Spanish* at the Tufts University School of Dental Medicine in Boston.

WANT TO TRAVEL?

From now till December the Council on Student Travel (179 Broadway, New York 7, N. Y.) invites applications, on a special form, from teachers and graduate students wanting short-term employment as educational directors on trans-Atlantic ships sailing regularly from New York to European and Mediterranean ports. Requisite: conversational ability in one or more of the following—French, German, Greek, Italian. Job assignments vary from one round-trip sailing to periods of 3-5 months, but all positions allow for time abroad. Compensation for longer periods will be regular salary; for a single round-trip sailing, full or partial passage, depending on job requirements.

* * *

Book Reviews

MOLIÈRE. *Le Médecin malgré lui*, edited by Ronald A. Wilson and R. P. L. Ledéser. D. C. Heath and Co., Boston, 1950, pp. 128. Price \$1.32.

MOLIÈRE. *Les Femmes Savantes*, edited by Ronald A. Wilson and R. P. L. Ledéser. D. C. Heath and Co., Boston, 1950, pp. 182. Price \$1.44.

Both plays are too well known to need any kind of introduction. The editors must be commended, however, for a most thorough and careful piece of work. Not one single misprint could be found. Each play is preceded by a lengthy introduction in English consisting of: Molière's background, life and work; comedy before Molière; the art of Molière and an explanation of the play; along with a note on French versification in the edition of *Les Femmes Savantes*.

The whole introduction is clear, scholarly, and well written. I found a slight historical mistake, on page VII, in both books, where Cardinal Richelieu is credited with having added to the realm the "four important provinces of Lorraine, Roussillon, Artois, and Alsace." This, of course, does not in any way impair the value of these two excellent books, and is only an incidental remark.

AGNÈS DUREAU

Western Reserve University

GOES, ALBRECHT, *Unruhige Nacht*, edited by Waldo G. Peebles. New York: American Book Company, 1955. v+154 pp. Notes and Vocabulary.

Once again a German pastor has gained renown as a man of letters. This time it is the Swabian, Albrecht Goes. The most widely acclaimed work of this writer, who lives simply as a village pastor in Gebersheim near Stuttgart, is the war novel, *Unruhige Nacht*, a straightforward, yet beautifully and delicately told account of a chaplain's assignment to the execution of a deserter. Recently this highly praised work (which has gone through eight editions!) has been edited as a school text by Professor Waldo G. Peebles of Boston University, and in view of the critical reception accorded the novel, the appearance of this text becomes a literary event of some importance.

As the editor explains in his preface, *Unruhige Nacht* is no ordinary war novel; for although it shows us the impact of war by allowing us brief glimpses into the lives of the several individuals who share the experience of this "unruhige Nacht," the chaplain, Captain Brentano, Schwester Melanie, and the condemned man himself, it achieves something far greater than this through the wonderful message

it brings, that of the necessity of continuing the struggle to transform those who hate, in order that the world may eventually become a better place to live in. The chaplain hero becomes at the close the spokesman of humaneness in the face of inhumanity and brutality when he sums up in simple but moving words the implications of the various experiences described in his narrative: "Und ich weiß, es ist ein langer Weg bis auch die Haßerfüllten verwandelt sind. Das Leben wird nicht aufhören, uns einzuladen, an diesem Weg zu bauen. Und ehe nicht das wohlbemessene Teil geleistet ist, darf keiner sich zur Ruhe begeben."

In this carefully prepared edition of Goes' novel (the notes are excellent, the vocabulary complete) Professor Peebles offers us not only a fine text, but a moving and beautifully made literary work by one of the most noble-minded of our contemporary writers.

WILLIAM H. MCCLAIN

The Johns Hopkins University

SALZBERGER, L. S., *Hölderlin*, in "Studies in Modern European Literature and Thought," New Haven: Yale University Press, 1952. pp. 64. \$2.50.

In a series of representative studies in modern European literature, including publications on such contemporary figures as Rilke, Valéry, and Croce, a monograph on Friedrich Hölderlin (1770-1843) may occasion mild surprise. Miss Salzberger however advances convincing reasons for a contemporary study on Hölderlin inasmuch as she sees the poet in the perspective of our present troubled condition, ascribing to him (in the words of T. S. Eliot) the "dilemma . . . of our own day."

The broken standards, the broken lives
The broken faith in one place or another

With that the author begins her exploration and exposition of Hölderlin's unique mission as he himself was conscious of it: to restore to an age in which universal standards of value were dissolving a faith and a vision. The poet as the divinely appointed prophet of mankind must alone assume the burden of revitalising the faith in the potential dignity and glory of man and human life. That Hölderlin overvalued this mission and, more sadly, his own responsibility for accomplishing it, was his personal tragedy. The author traces the poet-priest concept historically from antiquity to the Renaissance (poet-vates) and shows how Hölderlin's stay in Tübingen (the confluence of the two streams: classical humanism and Christian pietism) virtually predetermined the direction in which his thinking and creation were to move. Specifically Hölderlin set himself the staggering task of reinterpreting, mediating, and harmonizing the double European heritage—the Christian and the

Classical. To this task he brought a purity of heart and a sensitivity of conscience which might have destroyed a naturally stouter spirit, one less burdened with personal involvements than Hölderlin's.

To the student of Hölderlin this historical orientation and the poet's place in it is most valuable. This particularly since Hölderlin is not readily, certainly not completely, to be classified with any of the tendencies prevailing in his day. (Miss Salzberger's little book is fortunately free of "isms" and "schools.") The effort to reveal the spiritual origins of this unique poetic nature and the conclusions reached are admirable and, at least to this reviewer, convincing: they indicate a knowledge of the poet and of his times but even more, a long period of pertinent reflection the extent and depth of which are deceptively compressed in some six pages.

The growth of the poet as delineated by Miss Salzberger from the early poems (the *Hymnen*) through the mature works and symbols (*Hyperion*, *Empedokles*, *Diotima*), show how completely loyal Hölderlin remained to his high conception of the responsibility of the poet: to diagnose the spiritual ills of man and to indicate a remedy. She shows how natural and how wrong it is to believe of Hölderlin that, because of his manifest devotion to mystical-panteistic concepts and symbols he is a typical "other-worldly" poet. The Hölderlin picture which emerges first and last from Miss Salzberger's study is that of a poet most anxiously concerned with the spiritual condition of contemporary man. No artist ever had a nobler conception of his sovereign responsibility to man and society. Hölderlin's collapse—we ought never to say failure—lay in the absolute isolation which became inevitable because of the impossible magnitude of his task. And this is of course the unavoidable tragedy of the artist. The more than thirty years of spiritual darkness through which Hölderlin lived before his end may be seen in terms of this most intense isolation.

The only negative comment, which is really not that, is that we could have wished for an expansion of the many significant facets of Hölderlin's thought and work. Presumably the demands of brevity prevented such further discussion.

A small appendix listing the most significant dates in Hölderlin's life is useful, as is the select bibliography. Since the book is intended for English readers the poetic excerpts quoted have been translated with consistent accuracy: since these quotations are employed to reveal Hölderlin's thought rather than his poetic mastery, Miss Salzberger wisely rendered them into prose.

There are a number of typographical errors (pp. 7, 14, 15, 24, 25, 38, 45, 46). None of them are serious.

CLARENCE K. POTT

University of Michigan

MEYER, ERIKA. *Ein Briefwechsel, Akademische Freiheit, Goslar*. Books I-III. "German Graded Readers," Alternate Series. New York: Houghton-Mifflin Company, 1954. Pp. vi+90, 96, 93. \$0.90 each.

Erika Meyer's new readers are meant to serve as alternates for the well-known original series *Auf dem Dorfe*,

In der Stadt and *Genialische Jugend*. The same high standards have been maintained both as regards content and pedagogical apparatus. In fact one has the distinct impression that the author has outdone herself and achieved something considerably better than her first series of readers. The content is mature, cultural, informative and at the same time interesting to the American student, whose point of view Miss Meyer seems to understand very well. Both past and present are dealt with; in the last reader the city of Goslar is made the vehicle for a review of the history of Germany. The correspondence in the first volume describes village life in Southwestern Germany, thus balancing the primarily North German locale of *Auf dem Dorfe*. *Akademische Freiheit* presents vivid descriptions of student life in the Middle Ages, in the eighteenth century and in the nineteenth. Here perhaps the emphasis on the historical is just a bit overdone; one cannot help wishing something had been said about present-day German academic institutions. Only one other minor objection occurs to this reviewer: perhaps it is not made clear enough in the volume on Goslar that the less commendable aspects of medieval life are not typically German but rather universally European, lest some Germanophobe accuse us of glorifying what he might call "typical German barbarism."

Although the vocabulary is carefully controlled and based on the Minimum Standard, the German written by Miss Meyer is genuine and smooth-flowing. The questions at the back of each booklet are excellent for conversational use and in the third volume they are designed to present more of a challenge to the student in that he cannot simply rearrange most of the words of the question to formulate his answer.

Spot-checks revealed a few minor omissions in the vocabulary of the third reader, e.g.: *etwas* in the meaning "somewhat" on p. 16, 1.28, *dazu gehörig* (one word or two?) on p. 40, 1.27. Perhaps the student should get some help with the special use of *um . . . zu* in the sense of only "only to . . ." in line 5 on p. 50; this is never covered in elementary grammars. Line 25, p. 6 in Book I should presumably begin *Ich weiss noch heute, wie . . .* rather than *. . . noch wie heute, wie . . .*

These readers naturally go very well with the same author's *Elementary German* but can also be used independently. They are among the very best reading material now available for beginning classes in college.

GEORGE E. CONDOYANNIS

Massachusetts Institute of Technology

Goethe's *Faust*, Part I and II. An abridged version translated by Louis MacNeice. New York: Oxford University Press, 1954, pp. 306. \$1.75.

This translation was originally intended as a special radio version for the Goethe Bicentenary. For this reason the text was cut considerably—by about one third. The cuts are listed at the end of the book together with explanations for the omissions. In most cases the explanations make sense in view of the purpose of this translation; at times, however, the reasons for the omissions are quite capricious. When MacNeice, for instance, omits the whole of *Auerbachs Keller* because "it seems comparatively dull

and because logically and dramatically, the *Hexenküche* makes a better opening for Faust's new course of life," he may have missed the point of that scene. Similarly ill conceived seems the cutting of a few lines in the scene *Gretchen's Room* just because the translator could not "stomach Faust's sentimentalizing over Gretchen's chair." These defects should not be exaggerated, for the translation as a whole is of such fine craftsmanship and preserves enough of the basic unity that one can easily agree with MacNeice when he suggests "that an abridged version such as this may prove more acceptable to certain classes of readers than the full work."

According to the introduction, the translation aims at a line-for-line translation, at a prosody equivalent to or, if possible, identical with Goethe's and also at a variation of mood and modulation of diction corresponding to Goethe's. MacNeice has achieved these aims to a remarkably high degree without resorting to that twisting of language and meaning and the kind of padding that make many translations so tedious and even ludicrous. Here the language flows naturally and has a good idiomatic ring that does justice to the original. MacNeice too finds the right tone for the various characters and changing situations. The differences between the possibilities of German and English, naturally, create problems for the translator. Shall he employ a stilted phrase to retain the original meter? Shall he sacrifice a rhyme in order to gain clarity? MacNeice's answer is, generally, in favor of clarity and good idiom, and it is perhaps the freedom from pedantry that gives his translation an unusual freshness and vitality.

A comparison with other translations—with those of Bayard Taylor, Albert Latham, Sir Thomas Martin, Anna Swanwick, Alice Raphael, George Priest—establishes again and again the superior quality of MacNeice's version. For instance, Mephisto's complaining about the priest who got away with the jewels, MacNeice translates:

So brooch, ring, chain he swipes at speed
As if they were merely chicken-feed
Thanks them no more no less for the casket
Than for a pound of nuts in a basket,
Promises Heaven will provide
And leaves them extremely edified.

Priest translates:

With that he bagged brooch, chain, and rings,
As if mere toadstools were the things,
And thanked them neither less nor more
Than were't a basketful of nuts he bore.
He promised them all heavenly pay
And greatly edified thereby were they.

Similar differences between MacNeice and other translators can be found without difficulty. The quoted lines show clearly enough MacNeice's expertness in rendering the light and humorous touch; but he is also a master of his craft where the lyrical mood or serious and lofty language are required. The Chant of the Archangels, Gretchen's songs, the passage of Faust explaining his faith to Gretchen can give evidence of that. The second part can supply still better examples: the first scene of the first act, the scene *On The Lower Peneios*, or the fifth act as whole. One example may suffice (Midnight, Part II, Act V):

I have only galloped through the world
And clutched each lust and longing by the hair;
What did not please me, I let go,
What flowed away, I let it flow.
I have only felt, only fulfilled desire,
And once again desired and thus with power
Have stormed my way through life; first great and strong,
Now moving sagely, prudently along.

To be sure, MacNeice takes liberties but he does so as a poet and achieves a total poetic effect that is much in keeping with the original. That does not mean that there are not some rough spots and some disappointments. For example, in the otherwise superb translation of the *Song of Lynceus*, the last line, "Es war doch so schön," comes out rather poorly as "At least it was fair;" also "Am farbigen Abglanz haben wir das Leben" is not quite the same as "Reflected colour forms our life for ever;" and "Das Schaudern ist der Menschheit bestes Teil" has a somewhat different sense from "To feel appalled is the greatest gift of man." Such instances are exceptions of minor importance. One can only wish that MacNeice may some time complete his translation, but even in its abridged form it can reveal Goethe to English readers in a manner that is not easily matched.

OTTO K. LIECKE

Hamilton College, Clinton, N. Y.

MOOCK, ARMANDO, *Rigoberto*, A Play of Contemporary Argentina. Edited by Willis Knapp Jones. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1954, pp. 137. \$1.80.

Dr. Jones, in a two-page *Introduction*, explains that the author of this play, Armando Moock, was born and lived the first few years of his life in Chile. The editor goes on to say that Mr. Moock, although retaining his Chilean citizenship, lived in Argentina for most of his active life as an author.

There is a real need for texts based on Spanish American plays. Although relatively few writers of the Spanish New World have become famous through their dramatic production, these few help give us an intimate picture of life, especially in the cities. Because many of our most popular texts are rural novels, our students are prone to believe that a refined city life does not exist. In this relatively short play (ninety-four pages of text), the student can see that city life exists, and that it is just as truly a part of the civilization of Spanish American as life reported in *Don Segundo Sombra* or *Doña Bárbara*.

Although the play has a relatively serious undercurrent, it can be classified as humorous; and the typical American college and university student will enjoy the very human situations brought on by the contacts of the three Elenas and the weak-kneed Rigoberto.

A rapid reading of the play and cursory reference to the notes and vocabulary lead me to believe that they both are carefully prepared.

For the teacher who wishes to develop a bit of grammar and conversational ability, Dr. Jones has prepared twelve pages of exercises including a very interesting set of suggestions under the two headings *Original work* and *Exercises for Critics*.

Those of us who have enjoyed teaching the few plays

from Spanish America that have been edited for classroom use will welcome Dr. Jones' very interesting contribution. We prophesy a wide use of this text and congratulate both the editor and publisher.

JAMES O. SWAIN

University of Tennessee

CASONA, ALEJANDRO (ALEJANDRO RODRÍGUEZ ÁLVAREZ), *La barca sin pescador*, edited by Balseiro, José A. and J. Riis Owre. New York: Oxford University Press, 1955, pp. 122+1 iii. Price, \$2.25.

Professor Balseiro and Dean Owre have chosen an excellent drama and have done a superior piece of editing. Although other dramas by Casona, *La dama del Alba*, *Nuestra Natacha*, and *La Sirena Varada*, are already well known in text editions, the prominent place that the Asturian born but now Spanish American dramatist has won make yet another text more than welcome to the teacher who is willing to seek something more than entertainment in what he chooses for his classes.

The editors have not tampered with the text but, for those interested have made a word count and have discovered that a very high percentage of the vocabulary items are already known by the student in intermediate classes. The fact that a few of the words *drendamo* (cranberry), for example, will never be seen or heard again, does not invalidate the percentage report.

Perhaps the most heartening feature of the editing work, for which we congratulate both Oxford University Press and Professors Balseiro and Owre, is the fundamental, solid and yet interesting scholarship we recognize on every page. Is it not well that even our average students be acquainted with some of the interesting facts about really great writers, their philosophy, and their manner of working?

The short list of words of high frequency at the beginning of each act will help and the locating of the notes either at the bottom of each paper or in the vocabulary is to be commended.

We commend the elimination of certain items from the general vocabulary. Unless we were to use this book in the very first year why include these? From a very cursory examination of the general vocabulary we conclude that it is well done.

The binding and printing are very attractive.

In spite of the relatively large number of Casona texts on the market, we prophesy a wide adoption of *La barca sin pescador*.

JAMES O. SWAIN

University of Tennessee

BRENT, ALBERT, *Leopoldo Alas and "La Regenta"* (The University of Missouri Studies, vol. XXIV, No. 2), The Curators of the University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri, 1951, pp. 135. Price, \$2.50.

All too frequently, doctoral dissertations, scholarly though they may be, make dull reading to all but a few specialists in the field concerned. Mr. Brent's study, a revision of a thesis done at Princeton University, is a welcome exception. Subtitled *A Study in Nineteenth Century Spanish Prose Fiction*, the slender volume covers its sub-

ject with surprising completeness and laudable competence. For one thing, Mr. Brent can write lucid and interesting prose. Then, too, he obviously has gone deeply and enthusiastically into his subject. The latter undertaking must have presented rather intimidating complexities, at times, for Leopoldo Alas is far from being a transparent writer. *La Regenta* is surely his most complicated work.

In addition to the "Foreword," the study is divided into two parts, two appendices, and a bibliography. Part I, "The Critic," deals with the "Novelistic Theory" of Alas. Part II, "The Novelist," has six divisions: I, "La Regenta," II, "The Role of Literature, Art, and Music," III, "The Pseudoculture of Provincial Society," IV, "Morality and Religion," V, "A Novel of Frustration," and VI, "Synthesis." Appendix A treats of "The Role of Literature in La Regenta," giving what appears to be an exhaustive listing of references to literature found in the novel. Appendix B contains translations into English of all Spanish quotations employed in the body of the study, an excellent feature for students of general literature who may be just a bit rusty in their Spanish. The volume closes with "A Bibliography of the Works of Leopoldo Alas and Writings about Him."

The reviewer's only regret, on reading this excellent study, was that Mr. Brent did not give more extensive quotations illustrating the peculiar satiric humor of the novelist, a humor that at times appears distinctly more British than Spanish, by the way. But this is a minor objection, measured by the many manifest virtues of Mr. Brent's volume.

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A *Swedish Reader*, edited by P. Brandberg and R. J. McClean, with Introductions and Notes. University of London, The Athlone Press, London, 1953, pp. 174. Price \$2.00.

This publication is a welcome addition to the fairly sparse field of modern Swedish readers. In offering prose specimens of fifteen representative authors ranging from the early nineteenth century to the present, the anthology succeeds in presenting attractive varieties in style and content. The following authors are represented: Geijer, Bremer, Strindberg, Lagerlöf, Söderberg, Bo Bergman, Hjalmar Bergman, Siwertz, Wägner, Hasse Z., Lagerkvist, Krusenstjerna, Johnson, Lo-Johansson, and Frídegård. Some selections are complete stories, others are necessarily extracts. The brief but essential biographic introductions provide valuable student aids. Generous footnotes treat both grammatic and cultural material. The editors presuppose 1) a mastery of grammar and possession of a basic vocabulary; 2) access to a dictionary and to McClean's Swedish grammar. The material is suited for third, possibly advanced second year students. Practically typographically perfect, the book was published with the aid of a grant from the Anglo-Swedish Literary Foundation. The British provenience of the editorial apparatus is not sufficiently pronounced to render it difficult for American use. The United States distributor for this text is John de Graff, Inc., New York.

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